DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 291 715 SP 029 952

AUTHOR	Hughes, Phillip, Ed.; And Others
TITLE	Better Teachers for Better Schools.
INSTITUTION	Australian Coll. of Education, Carlton, Victoria.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-909587-46-9
PUB DATE	87
NOTE	364p.
AVAILABLE FROM	The Australian College of Education, PO Box 361, Carlton 3053, Victoria, Australia ($14.95).
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Collected Works - General (020)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC15 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Academic Standards; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Individual Development; *Policy Formation; *Professional Development; *Program Improvement; *Public Schools; School Districts; *Teacher Improvement
IDENTIFIERS	*Australia

ABSTRACT

Professional development for teachers will continue to be central to the continuing need to help schools deal more effectively with the problems of change. Three themes are emphasized--the individual teacher, the school, and the system. This publication, consisting of 24 papers, is intended to inform public debate on the issue which is critical to the adoption of long term policies in Professional Development. (Author/JD)

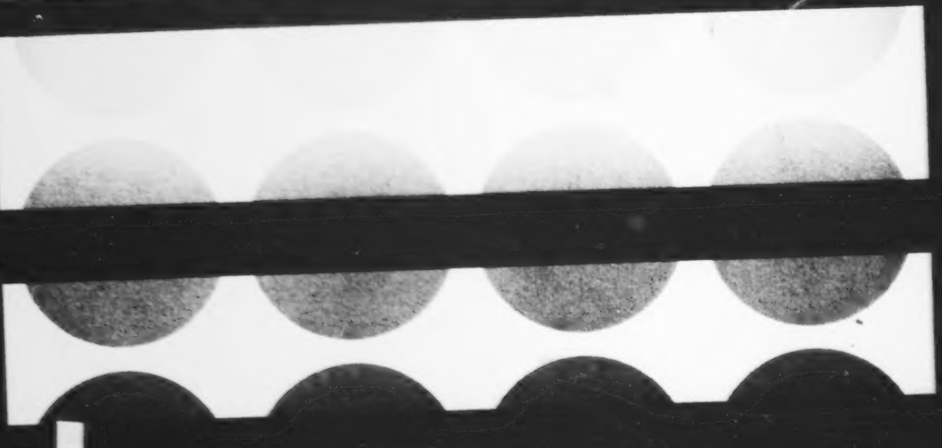
****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

THE AUSTRALIAN COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Better Teachers for Better Schools

ED291715



SP 029 952

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

C. C. Clifford

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

● Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

The Australian College of Education

Better Teachers for Better Schools

Edited by
Phillip Hughes

in collaboration with
Christine E. Deer and Walter D. Neal

The Australian College of Education
Carlton, Victoria
1987

The Australian College of Education
James Darling House
914-916 Swanston Street, Carlton 3053
Telephone (03) 347 2144

First published 1987 by
The Australian College of Education
© The Australian College of Education 1987

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication data
Better teachers for better schools
ISBN 0 909587 46 9.
1. Teachers - Training of - Australia.
2. Teachers - In-service training - Australia.
I. Hughes, Phillip W. (Phillip William),
1926- . II. Deer, Christine E. (Christine
Elizabeth). III. Neal, W.D. (Walter Douglas).
IV. Australian College of Education.
370'.7'10994

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means without prior written permission from The Australian College of Education.

Printed in Australia by Capitol Press Pty Ltd, Box Hill, 3128.

CONTENTS

Introduction

Professional Development for Teachers in Australia 3
Phillip Hughes

Theme 1 Professional Development: The Teacher 9

Selecting Teachers: Can we do it Better? 11
Ken J. Eltis

Australian Research on the Practicum During the Last Decade 23
Richard P. Tisher

The Place of Induction in Professional Development 36
Richard P. Tisher

The Professional Socialisation of School Teachers 46
Donald S. Anderson

Present and Future Needs of Teachers on a Career Continuum 66
Edward Scott

New Patterns and Directions in the Professional Education of the Teacher 103
Geoffrey W. Beeson

Theme 2 Professional Development: The School 115

Introduction Theme 2 — Professional Development: The School 117
Christine E. Deer

Beginning School-Focused Development Programs 119
Ken J. Eltis

Professional Development Through Supervision 130
Dawn M. Thew

Professional Development: The Role and Needs of the School Principal 139
Judith D. Chapman

Professional Development through Participation in School-Focused Curriculum Development and Implementation 148
Marelle Harisun

Professional Development through School Level Evaluation 161
Neil Russell

Professional Development through Materials Production and Implementation 175
Colin J. Marsh

Professional Development through Parent-Teacher-Community Interaction 186
David Pettit and Yve Willich

Action Research and Professional Development 201
David H. Tripp

Professional Development through Studying Teacher Behaviour 223
Michael J. Dunkin

Professional Development through Participation in Organisation Development 235
Bill Mulford

Theme 3 Professional Development: The System

Introduction Theme 3 — Professional Development: The System 251
W.D. Neal

Personnel Policies in Modern Organisations 257
W.G. Walker

Principles for Planning Professional Development 267
John Docker

Policies for Professional Development: the 1984 National Review of Teacher Education 298
Lawrence Ingvarson and Frank Coulter

Support Services 324
G.F. Berkeley

Some Considerations for the Future 338
R.W. Rawlinson and M. Guild-Wilson

Summary and Implications 352
W.D. Neal

Contributors to this Publication 361

INTRODUCTION:

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS IN AUSTRALIA

Phillip Hughes

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS IN AUSTRALIA

Phillip Hughes

The Australian College of Education has undertaken as one of its major research and development initiatives this Professional Development Project entitled *Better Teachers for Better Schools*. This choice was made in the clear acknowledgement of the central importance of this topic. For this reason the College has made the topic its major research and development project for three consecutive years, 1984, 1985 and 1986. This publication in 1987 is not, however, intended as the end of the project but rather as a contribution towards its continued discussion and development. In doing this the College places an important emphasis on the process of the initiative as well as on this product, which is in itself a significant publication. The involvement of many educators throughout the project is itself a valuable professional development exercise. The use of the publication by policy makers and by teachers will be a further contribution.

The title we have chosen reflects our concern for the implications of research on practice. This practice will include the creation of policies for professional development and the nature of professional development in schools. This has been a continuing thought in the minds of all the contributing authors throughout their work.

The project has selected three themes for emphasis, the individual teacher, the school and the system. Yet while these themes are distinct they are also necessarily interrelated and interdependent. On this basis they have proceeded in parallel rather than being developed sequentially as was considered at one stage. Also, while the project looks at the past and the present it is essentially a future orientation — future skills and future teaching roles. Each of the three themes has this emphasis in mind.

The project has been fortunate in attracting the support of very able and experienced people, both as co-ordinators of the themes and as contributing authors. The Theme 1 Co-ordinator was initially Professor Cliff Turney of Sydney University. Cliff Turney's contribution both to research and practice in teacher education is well known. When he had to withdraw owing to pressure of time I took over this task personally. The Theme 2 Co-ordinator was Dr Christine Deer, Associate Professor of Education at Macquarie University. Chris Deer has had very substantial experience in teacher education and her own writings on the curriculum are also very relevant to this project. The Co-ordinator for Theme 3 was Dr Walter Neal of Western Australia. Wal Neal is undoubtedly one of Australia's most respected educators and despite his recent retirement is still very active. The Co-ordinator for each theme had the responsibility of initiating the theme, keeping track of the activities and playing a synthesising role. Our efforts as co-ordinators have not been to initiate research but rather with identifying issues, locating relevant research and practice, and co-ordinating activities at all levels to reach some soundly-based conclusions on desirable aims and policies. The whole project has been considered from the background of the current social context and of possible future changes.

As indicated, the three themes relate to the teacher, the school, the system. It should not need to be emphasised, of course, that implicit and crucial in all three is the concern for students. The thrust of the title *Better Teachers for Better Schools* needs to be seen in that context.

Australian education as a formal process involving separate institutions has a short history, still rather less than 200 years. Teacher education in terms of the definition of institutions for the formal preparation of teachers has a history of less than half that time. For most of the period the preparation of teachers was largely a matter of 'apprenticeship' in the form of the monitorial system imported from England. It was not until late in the nineteenth century, firstly with the development of the universities and very soon thereafter with the earlier teachers' colleges that the process took an institutional form. Teacher education as a continuing career-long concern has a still shorter history, really becoming a major emphasis only in the past fifteen years. It is now seen as a major concern by education systems, the Commonwealth Schools Commission, by teacher unions and professional associations, and not least by teachers themselves. It may be worthwhile to analyse briefly some of the reasons for this change, a change which is, of course, still in process.

The Australian interest in professional development is part of a wider interest which can be seen in countries such as Britain and the United States (*cf.* Bolam, 1979 and 1982). Part of the reason for the change is pointed out in the paper by Skilbeck, Evans and Harvey (1976). Following their survey they emphasised that as teaching programs became less prescriptive and as the emphasis on public examinations is reduced teachers recognise the need to become better equipped in curriculum design and development. This in itself is a major factor in the pressure for more continuous programs in in-service education. A further impetus has occurred because of the much greater stability in teaching staff. With the stabilisation or decrease of school populations and the substantial reduction in resignation rates of teachers, particularly women teachers, teachers now expect to have a longer teaching career. This has been accommpanied by a reduction in the opportunities for promotion which means that many more people will spend longer in the classroom. Thus, if changes are to occur and this, in today's society, is inevitable, then they can only occur through changes in the approach of teachers.

There are also substantial institutional reasons for the growing emphasis on professional development. A major factor in this regard has been the establishment and operation of the Commonwealth Schools Commission which at its inception in 1973 defined professional development as 'all the planned experiences which a qualified teacher may undergo for the purpose of extending his professional competence' (Karmel, 1973). The Schools Commission has emphasised two complementary approaches to professional development. One of these was through the direct injection of Commonwealth funds on the basis of particular educational policy defined by the Commission. This was a quite unique event in that no Federal body had previously been able to influence directly decisions about teaching. However, critical to this approach was the stated belief of the Commission that professional development should be available to all teachers, irrespective of school system, and that teachers should take a leading role in forming the directions of professional development (Commonwealth Schools Commission Report for 1979-81). The Commission operated through state development committees but also involved regional advisory groups and individual schools. As a natural consequence of its devolution policy the Commission commented that professional development should have a strong emphasis on teacher-initiated and school-based in-service education (Commonwealth Schools Commission Report for 1976-78). A further aspect of the Schools Commission policy which had hoped to involve teachers more in the process of their own professional development was in their initiation and support of teachers' centres and education centres. The success of such centres in Britain and Scotland was one of the background reasons for their introduction into Australia. The Schools Commission itself funded education centres which became centres for teachers' professional development. Teachers' centres had already begun to exist through the support of state departments and were now further encouraged, as many departments used their own funds and also channelled Schools Commission funds in this direction. Both these initiatives gave teachers a greater role in defining the direction and nature of their own professional expertise.

A still further institutional initiative in the area of professional development is the growing interest and involvement of the tertiary institutions. With the reduced emphasis on initial preparation, new resources and energies were available for professional development. A clear indication of this is the major growth in postgraduate courses in education in both universities and colleges of advanced education. From a small beginning in the early 1970s these are now a major aspect of the programs of most tertiary institutions. A key item for the future will be the extent to which there can be productive liaison between the various interest groups in professional development. A very useful model is that pertaining in Tasmania, the Centre for the Continuing Education of Teachers (CCET). The CCET is a linking body involving the Education Department, non-government schools, the University of Tasmania, and the Tasmanian State Institute of Technology in planning and implementing courses for teachers in schools. Crucial to that planning is the involvement of teachers and schools in deciding on the focus, the location and the nature of such courses.

Three national reports have made substantial contributions to the recent thinking on professional development. These are the Auchmuty Report (1980), the Quality of Education Review (Karmel, 1985) and the Review of the Commonwealth Professional Development Program (Coulter and Ingvarson, 1985). The latter, of course, are direct contributors to this project. The National Inquiry Into Teacher Education or 'Auchmuty Report' gave most of its attention to pre-service teacher education. It did, however, also recognise the need for long-term policies to support and strengthen teacher initiatives in their own professional development. The thinking of the Committee was very similar in its approach to that described by Bolam (1982).

The Quality of Education Review Committee was appointed by the Commonwealth Government to report on the effectiveness of present Commonwealth involvement in Australian education, particularly at the primary and secondary levels. The Review took note of the activity occurring in the area of professional development, both through the Education Centres Program and the Professional Development Program. They noted the purpose of the latter program 'to improve the knowledge and skills of teachers, principals and educational support staff; and to enhance the capacity of parents and other members of the community to contribute to the education of their children' (Karmel, 1985). The Review noted the following difficulties:

- the dislocatory effects of abrupt changes in Commonwealth policy and the confusion created by superimposing new priorities and by poor timing of advice about changes;
- the perceptions held by some authorities that the Commonwealth was responsible for funding in-service education;
- the susceptibility of funding to fluctuations because of budgetary circumstances;
- the reluctance of school systems to develop administrative structures for the co-ordination of in-service education policies while the Commonwealth's specific purpose programs are administered by broadly representative committees external to these systems;
- the conflict between the immediate priorities of the Commonwealth and those of authorities administering schools; and
- the lack of opportunity for effective consultation and negotiation in the setting of Commonwealth priorities.

The Review Committee stressed that the attainment of the desirable outcomes of schooling was heavily dependent on improving the quality of teachers:

> Teachers must be well educated, adaptive and innovative; changes in objectives, credentialling and assessment arrangements, the curriculum or

> school organisation depend on teachers to carry them out. Since new entrants to teaching represent only a small fraction of the total teaching force, in the short and medium term, emphasis on improving teacher quality must be on in-service development.
>
> Ways must be found to encourage more teachers to:
>
> - direct their efforts to raising their students' attainments in the general competencies;
> - adopt rigorous approaches to the treatment of curriculum content;
> - plan consistent and co-ordinated approaches to the curriculum; and
> - identify, and feel confident and competent in their teaching of, students suffering educational disadvantage.

One strategy commended by the Review Committee to achieve these outcomes was through the Education Centres Program providing courses, facilities and resources for teachers. The other strategy was through the expansion of consultant and advisory services.

> Expansion of consultant and advisory services is a fruitful strategy for raising the quality of the work of teachers. Consultants are an important source of new ideas and knowledge for classroom teachers. Given a choice between making a marginal reduction in average class size or increasing the size and quality of consultant and advisory services, the latter is to be preferred.

The Karmel Committee strongly recommended that professional development should be a high priority for future Commonwealth programs. In fact, this has not been the case over recent years where the Commonwealth contribution to professional development has been substantially reduced since 1976. The response to the Karmel recommendation is still unclear.

The third report dealt directly and exclusively with professional development. It focuses particularly on those aspects of professional development which carry no formal credit. As with the Karmel Report it links possible improvements in school performance with the quality of the teaching force, pointing out that teachers' knowledge and professional competence are an upper limit to what can be presented effectively in the classroom. The authors stress that any proposals for curriculum change automatically place new demands on teachers and thus that curriculum change must therefore be supported by parallel and relevant professional development. Coulter and Ingvarson identify eight major recurring themes in recent Australian writings:

1. Teacher education is a continuum of professional development.
2. Pre-service training is incomplete and is necessarily only a beginning of a career of self-motivated professional development.
3. Four years of pre-service training is desirable for all levels of teaching.
4. Greater attention should be given to the induction and in-service phases of professional development.
5. Pre-service and in-service teacher education programs must be more responsive to the social and technological changes which impinge on school curricula, school organisation and the role of the teacher.

6. Professional development should be closely related to the development, implementation and evaluation of the school curriculum. Consequently, an essential step towards effective in-service education is the formulation of a school staff development policy.
7. Much wider involvement of the community is desirable in educational planning, decision-making and curriculum development. Professional development at all levels should be designed to assist teachers to work effectively with parents and the wider community.
8. Continuing research and development is central to the enhancement of teacher education programs.

(Coulter and Ingvarson, 1985)

It is clear from the various factors considered here that professional development for teachers is not just of current importance but will continue to be central to the continuing need to help schools deal more effectively with the problems of change. The attitude of teachers to the topic, the policies and approaches of schools and systems and the policies and programs of the Commonwealth Schools Commission are all therefore vital to the improvement of education. This publication is intended to inform the public debate on the issue, a debate which is so critical to the adoption of long-term policies on professional development. Stop-and-start programs are not a basis on which to develop an area of such importance.

References

Auchmuty, J.J. (1980) (Chairman) *Report of the National Inquiry Into Teacher Education.* AGPS, Canberra.

Bolam, R. (1979) *Priorities in INSET: An International Perspective.* Unpublished paper. Conference on INSET in Canada. Simon Fraser University, Vancouver, BC.

Bolam, R. (1982) *School-Focussed In-Service Training.* Heinemann Education, London.

Commonwealth Schools Commission Report for 1976-78.

Commonwealth Schools Commission Report for 1979-81.

Coulter, F. and Ingvarson, L. (1985) *Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling: Roles and Responsibilities.* A Report to the Commonwealth Schools Commission. Review of the Commonwealth Professional Development Program. Canberra.

Karmel, P. (1973) *Schools in Australia.* Report to the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission. Canberra.

Karmel, P. (1985) (Chairman) *Quality of Education in Australia.* Report of Review Committee. AGPS, Canberra.

Skilbeck, M., Evans, G., and Harvey, J. (1976) *Innovation in In-Service Education and Training of Teachers: Australia.* CERI-OECD, Paris.

THEME 1:
THE TEACHER

Selecting Teachers — Can We Do It Better?
Ken J. Eltis

Australian Research on the Practicum
During the Last Decade
Richard P. Tisher

The Place of Induction
in Professional Development
Richard P. Tisher

The Professional Socialisation
of School Teachers
Don Anderson

Present and Future Needs of Teachers
on a Career Continuum
Edward Scott

New Patterns and Directions in the
Professional Education of the Teacher
Geoffrey W. Beeson

SELECTING TEACHERS — CAN WE DO IT BETTER?

Ken J. Eltis

In this paper the author highlights the difficulties associated with selecting those who might undertake training to become teachers and with choosing teachers for appointment to schools. Factors which impinge upon the selection process are considered and concern is expressed at the poor quality control measures taken with would-be teachers. A plea is made for the use of multiple measures to assist selecting applicants for training; the suggestion is made that teacher education institutions should look at ways of making selection an on-going education process rather than a one-off administrative task. Similarly, the selection of teachers for employment and certification should be a multi-staged process, with collaboration being sought amongst the professionals working in teacher education, educational and employing authorities, teacher groups and teachers working in schools.

This article is a slightly revised version of an earlier text by the same author, 'Selection For Teaching: The Search for Quality' in Husen, T. and Postlethwaite, T.N. (Eds.) International Encyclopedia of Educational Research and Studies *(in press). Oxford, Pergamon Press.*

Selection or Non-Selection?

While considerable effort has been expended in the last two decades on how to design more effective professional programs for teachers, the dilemma of how to select the best applicants to benefit from our improved pre-service programs has proved very difficult to resolve. Of the criteria forming part of the selection process for initial teacher training, it has been said that the standards are 'meagre, . . . established at wretchedly low levels (and are) administered in such a careless fashion to be literally useless' (Watts, 1980, 120). Similar comments have been made about the recruitment and selection of teachers for appointment to schools: 'when recruitment does occur, it may often be capricious or haphazard' (Hopfengardner, Lasley and Joseph, 1983, 10).

Not only are we not seeing the best applicants coming forward for teaching positions (Weaver, 1981a), discouraged as many are by the disincentives created by the perception of the work teachers do and their career prospects (Wimpelberg and King, 1983), the procedures adopted as part of the selection may themselves often be subject to bias on the basis of sex and race (Young, 1983). There is doubt, too, about the measures used to choose teachers who will be successful members of the profession (Pugach and Raths, 1982). In short, we appear to have made very little progress on this difficult question of teacher selection, either for pre-service programs or for appointment to a school.

It might have been expected that in the last decade or so when many countries have been experiencing an 'oversupply' of teachers (OECD, 1979a) there would have been some improvement in the selection process for the limited number of positions falling vacant in schools. It appears that this has not been the case. With the exception of a brief period during the depression years, until the mid-1970s there had always been a shortfall in the number of teachers available for appointment to schools. As a result tertiary institutions were encouraged to accept high numbers of students into teacher education programs to sustain the flow of available graduates. This, of course, did not enhance the prospects of improved quality control. But despite the change in the employment market in more recent years there has been no concerted effort to improve selection procedures. Howsam and his colleagues have noted that in the USA, for example,

> the decline in teaching positions has not provoked a profession-wide discussion regarding the qualities candidates need in this constricted market.' (Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark and Nash, 1976, 114)

Coupled with this lack of attempt to try to improve selection procedures is the fact that the academic quality and potential of those seeking admission to training programs in the USA have not improved (Weaver, 1981b), so that attempts at quality control through more stringent selection both at entry to training and an appointment to a teaching position cannot be as successful as one would have hoped during a period of excess numbers of teachers over the positions available (Mertens and Yarger, 1982). It is highly doubtful whether the position is any better in Australia though in recent years we have seen a gradual upward movement in some States (*e.g.* New South Wales) in the aggregate score at the matriculation level required for entry to some institutions, particularly the metropolitan universities.

Influences on the Selection Process

Institutions do not decide in isolation how many students might be admitted to a program of teacher preparation. The needs of employing authorities exert a considerable influence. During periods of teacher shortage it is not unusual for incentives to be offered to student teachers in the form of scholarships to enable them to complete their training program. Usually such scholarships are offered on condition that the students commit themselves to teaching at the end of their training (OECD, 1979a). Where such 'bonding' schemes have operated the screening of applicants was carried out by both the funding authority and the tertiary institution. These bonding schemes have now virtually ceased in Australia with the result that even the minimal amount of screening of candidates previously undertaken has now disappeared. A further problem has been suggested by Anderson (1974) who argues that the disappearance of the 'bonding' schemes will have the consequence that students from lower socio-economic levels will no longer take up teacher education in larger proportions than in other professions.

In recent years government bodies have been keen to exert greater control over the number of institutions involved in teacher training and over the number of students in these institutions. This has been done to cut expenditure on teacher education at the pre-service level and also to avoid creating a large pool of unemployed teachers. In New South Wales, for example, figures were produced in May 1984 giving projections of teacher supply and demand for the period 1985–1991. Using such information institutions can be advised of likely demand for teachers and adjustments can be made to intakes to ensure, as far as possible, that teacher supply and demand can be kept in healthy balance. The compilation of data of this kind on an annual basis is particularly helpful in helping institutions attract students to programs where a likely shortfall has been projected (*e.g.* for secondary mathematics and science teachers).

When assessing their likely needs, employing authorities also need to consider the desired 'mix' in their profession. They need to take into account, for example, the proportion of female and male teachers, the number of mature age entrants they would like to see coming into the profession, and whether certain groups should receive positive discrimination given the needs of schools and the diverse range of pupil backgrounds in the schools. In the United States, for example, the point has been made that, as that society is significantly multicultural/multiracial, there is a need for representation in all of the professions, including teaching, from all the racial and cultural groups (Mercer, 1984). For this reason alternative admission criteria have been suggested to help students from various groups who might otherwise be disadvantaged by rigid selection procedures relying heavily on scholastic achievement test scores. It may well be time that we in Australia gave special consideration to how we select student teachers from particular cultural backgrounds and how, in particular, we might admit more students of aboriginal background to teacher training. If employing authorities decide to initiate action designed to meet a need for teachers in a particular subject teaching area or to attract student teachers from a particular background, it is essential that there be constant liaison with the training institutions who have to decide how responsive they can or should be to employer demands.

Brief reference has already been made to a major factor which affects the ultimate selection process — the resource pool from whom applicants may be chosen. Though training programs with a strong reputation may attract more applicants than those less favorably viewed, the institutions have little control over the numbers and quality of those seeking admission. What is disturbing is that in recent years the pool of applicants in a number of countries, including Australia, has shown, overall, a decline in academic quality (Auchmuty, 1980; Weaver, 1981; Taylor, 1978). Speaking of the USA, Wimpelberg and King (1983) suggest that 'past research and reasonable projections anticipate a decline in the number of able teachers who will enter the profession in the coming decade.' (p5)

They base their view on the incredible demands prospective teachers see pupils might place on them, on the poor image teaching has, and on the poor career prospects facing teachers, particularly 'those who want to perfect their abilities and execute their craft in the classroom.' (p6)

This continuing poor image of the teaching profession has not been enhanced by the relative ease of entry to the profession (Howsam *et al.*, 1976).

It is unfortunate that, at a time when we might hope to be able to apply more rigorous and effective criteria in the selection of student teachers, not only is the pool from which selection might be made on the whole weaker, but institutions still appear to be exercising minimal selectivity, with few applicants being denied admission (Brubaker, 1976; Laman and Reeves, 1983). In offering this comment, the motivation of those enrolling in programs is not being called into question. Indeed, whereas in earlier years assured job security along with encouragement from their own teachers attracted students to teaching as a career, current evidence suggests students might be attracted to teaching for altruistic and personal reasons and, pleasingly, from a strong desire to work with children (Wood, 1978).

While it might be true that, until credible quality control practices are developed, teaching will not become an established profession (Howsam *et al.*, 1976), such practices will be effective in enhancing the quality and standing of the profession only if we can attract capable students into the available pool of applicants both for teacher training and for subsequent appointment to schools.

Selection for Training

There appears to be general agreement that tertiary institutions should improve their selection devices and ensure that they can justify the admission of all students. Current admission standards appear to be both lax and inappropriate (Laman and Reeves, 1983). There is a very firm view that screening devices need to be replaced by professional selection criteria (Haberman, 1974), with greater involvement of a range of personnel in the selection process (DES, 1983).

A wide variety of instruments designed to gather both objective and subjective data is used for selecting students for teacher training: self-report questionnaires; biographical forms; tests of knowledge; school grades; structured interviews; measures of values, aptitudes, personality characteristics; letters of reference (Shank, 1978; Laman and Reeves, 1983). It appears that the elements used in the selection process in the 1970s have not varied much from those used over the last 30 years (Crocker, 1974; Laman and Reeves, 1973), lending weight to the view that there is a limit to the range of possibilities at our disposal. The task is to refine practices rather than invent a whole new set of possibilities.

Academic attainment continues to be the most important criterion (Carpenter, 1973; Gress, 1977; Rawlinson and Burnard, 1980), and though its relevance as a predictor of performance in teacher education courses or in the classroom has been queried, its importance for the credibility of the profession has been recognised. A public which might be concerned by publicity about declining enrolments and the lowering of aggregates for entry to teacher education programs needs to be reassured of the academic quality of those coming into training (Weaver, 1981b; Pugach and Raths, 1982). It is also important to note that despite misgivings about the importance usually ascribed to academic performance, evidence has been produced to show the effectiveness of students' grade point average as a predictor of elementary school teaching performance both during training and after graduation (Eash and Rasher, 1977).

From the data presently available it would seem fair to conclude that a broad formula needs to be arrived at when selecting students for training and this formula should include information derived from a number of sources. It should go beyond data from secondary school performance, to include high school ranking, personality ratings, verbal and quantitative scores and interviews (Reed, 1976). Personality variables often cited and which could form part of the data profile relate to patience, initiative, enthusiasm, ability to work with people (Bryant, Lawlis, Nicholson and Maher, 1978) and flexibility, tolerance, sensitivity and communication skills (Auchmuty, 1980). In this process the importance of the interview is not to be ignored. Interviews are considered by teacher, parents and community groups to be an important element in selection, though there is a great deal of uncertainty concerning how to go about carrying out interviews reliably (Rawlinson and Burnard, 1980).

But the application of a comprehensive formula as part of initial selection may be valuable only in eliminating those who are obviously unsuited (de Landsheere, 1980) or who show no potential to function as continuous learners (Haberman, 1974). Indeed, the view has been expressed that the prime purpose of initial selection should be to apply disqualifying criteria to ensure that grossly unsuitable people are screened out and that this negatively-oriented selection should continue during the pre-service program (OECD, 1979c). For those who are accepted, the data used as part of the selection process (examination results, information gathered during interview, etc) should come to form the basis for planning subsequent programs suited to individual needs.

One-off selection prior to the point of entry is not sufficient. While it may be possible to assess whether a student has the intellectual capacity to succeed, along with a positive attitude towards children and teaching, it is only when students have the experience of working with teachers and children that they come to understand the complex role of the teacher and reveal their abilities and potential as a developing professional. Thus, one theme running through the literature is the need to look at selection as an on-going educational process rather than as a one-off administrative task (Haberman and Stinnett, 1973). In this process, students must demonstrate at a number of specific points in their program that they possess desired skills, knowledge and attitudes which will allow them ultimately to function effectively as full-time professionals (Bingham and Hardy, 1981). What the process implies is that an efficient counselling service will be available at key points in the students' training program (as suggested in the NCATE Standards, 1981). The provision of an efficient counselling service for students should assist the fostering of the notion of 'self-selection' whereby students are encouraged to play an active role in deciding whether they should continue with their programs or shift out of teacher training.

The advantage to be gained from having students practise self-selection prior to admission has also been stressed. More and more authorities are advocating the value of a break between school and tertiary study for prospective teacher education students (DES, 1983; Howsam *et al.*, 1976). During this initial period of work experience students should be encouraged to explore for themselves whether they really are suited for teaching and make a more balanced decision on the basis of their experience. Self-selection, however, should not lead automatically to admission to a program as appears to be the case in many instances, given that very few applicants are rejected (Howey, Yarger and Joyce, 1978).

It should be understood that throughout the whole selection and counselling process there is a need to be mindful of the interests of students and the credibility of the teaching profession. Students must be given every opportunity to develop their awareness of the teacher's role and of their own ability to perform it effectively. Self-selection without advice from professionals will not be sufficient for students to determine whether they are fitted to embark on a teaching career. It is important that, in addition, students should receive support and comment from teachers with whom they work as part of the on-going counselling process. The argument has been well summarised by Laman and Reeves (1983) who wrote:

> Perhaps the best way of addressing this problem (of selection) is one often suggested but rarely implemented, that is to make evaluation an on-going process. The teacher training program should provide field-based activities throughout the student's training period. By this means, prospective teachers can early determine their own suitability for the profession, and administrators will have opportunities to guide candidates in eliminating weaknesses and enhancing strengths rather than merely granting or denying admission to the program. (p4)

Reference has already been made to the desirability of students having some work experience prior to beginning their training. It should be noted that in recent years there has been an increase in the number of applicants not coming directly from school to training institutions, in particular mature-age students. This has been seen as a welcome trend, and one to be encouraged (DES, 1983; Auchmuty, 1980; Howsam *et al.*, 1976). It has been suggested that mature-age entrants tend to show greater motivation and, as a result, are likely to succeed in tertiary studies (Eaton, 1979). This raises another important issue in relation to initial selection.

Authorities may decide that positive discrimination is needed in favour of particular groups such as mature-age entrants, teachers of ethnic languages or in areas where there are special needs such as secondary mathematics and science. It has been suggested above that for such groups entry requirements may be varied and provisional admission may be desirable, taking account of their particular background. However, in granting admission, academic background will still remain a consideration. Once they have been accepted into the program, for these students on-going selection procedures will assume particular importance and they should be aware of the need for regular counselling throughout the program.

Selection for Employment and Certification

In recent years practices have been changing in relation to the employment of students graduating from teacher education programs. Employer selection is still in its infancy in many countries, particularly those where in the past students have been trained with financial support from an Authority and there was guaranteed employment after training.

Two main avenues exist for becoming employed as a teacher. A graduate student can apply to an Authority for a position and, after presenting relevant credentials and usually after a brief interview (the emphasis being predominantly on administrative matters, and especially on whether the student has graduated from an approved/accredited program), the graduate can be deemed eligible for appointment to a school. The precise school is left to the Authority to decide after reviewing its vacancies. In this approach it is not always possible to match the talents of the applicant with the position available. On the other hand, the new graduate may apply directly to a school, especially in the case of non-government schools, provide credentials, seek an interview, after which the school can determine the suitability of the applicants. Should a position be offered, the applicant is free to choose whether or not to accept; this may not be so easy with state employing authorities who may offer only a restricted choice to the graduate who has been deemed eligible for appointment to any of their schools.

No matter how graduates are appointed to schools, what is ultimately of extreme importance for the standing of the profession is how they receive final certification as teachers. Completion of initial training simply means that students have been successful in meeting the requirements of the tertiary institution; they still have to perform successfully in the school and its classrooms to achieve certification. The purpose of such certification is to safeguard the profession and improve the quality of instruction received by students (Bolton, 1973).

It has been forcefully argued that there is a need for the profession to develop a multi-staged certification plan (Howsam *et al.*, 1976). When students successfully complete their program of training, institutions should recommend initial certification which will allow graduates to take up an appointment. Institutions should be required to provide employers with details of the students' program of training, including recommendations for future growth. Subsequent certification should be granted after a period of about one year's teaching. During this period relevant data can be gathered and the need to rely heavily on data provided during training can be overcome. As in the initial training phase, teachers should be invited to conduct evaluations of their own performance.

There are two further elements in this multi-staged certification plan. Once certification has been granted it should not be permanent; that is, a teacher's work should be reviewed at regular intervals to allow for confirmation of continued certification. A second major suggestion is that after a given period of teaching, application could be made for registration as a professional scholar. For such registration teachers would be required to meet standards set by representatives of training institutions, the organised profession, state education authorities and employing school systems. While we are still a long way from this goal, the idea behind it is admirable. Not only would such a collaborative approach to recognising the professional teacher make a significant contribution to protecting the safety of the clients (*i.e.* the pupils), it would greatly enhance the standing of the teaching profession.

The possibility of achieving the goal of professional certification may not be quite as remote as appears at first glance. There has been considerable concern about the quality of graduates seeking employment and the quality of their performance in schools. To try to upgrade the quality of training programs accreditation standards have been established in various countries to be met by institutions offering teacher education programs (*e.g.* in the UK the Council for National Academic Awards, CNAA). Presently in the USA, for example, after 25 years work the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has set 25 standards to be met by institutions seeking accreditation (Wisniewski, 1981). However,

> although NCATE exists to monitor standards in teacher training programs, NCATE's importance is not seriously regarded except by the institutions that have NCATE accreditation. (Mertens and Yarger, 1982, pp9–10)

Sadly, well under half of the institutions involved in teacher preparation are accredited by NCATE (Watts, 1982) and, as Watts points out,

> unlike some of the other professions, which will not accept graduates from non-accredited institutions, products from . . . programs without NCATE accreditation are eligible to enter the teaching profession. (p35)

Even where institutions have sought NCATE accreditation there has been criticism. It has been suggested that the standards represent a 'laundry list of procedural concerns' which have not led to improved quality in teacher education programs because the standards fail to emphasise issues of program quality (Tom, 1981). A research project has been conducted to look at the evaluation process of NCATE and criticism has been levelled at the lack of in-depth examination of how well the NCATE standards are implemented in programs (Wheeler, 1980).

It is clear from the US experience that much still needs to be done to ensure a guarantee of minimum quality in pre-service training programs. A start has been made, particularly through the stringent accreditation procedures followed with courses proposed in Australia by Colleges of Advanced Education, but we still need to investigate how to apply minimum standards to all institutions offering teacher education programs — including Universities — so that we can be certain that those seeking to enter the profession have undergone approved programs offering high quality teacher preparation.

To approve programs is but one step. What else can be done to ensure minimum standards are applied when teachers seek certification after their training? Usually employing authorities have their own means of teacher assessment; for example, inspection systems as in Australia, or simply formal requirements of a specified number of courses and credit hours without any evidence being required of teaching ability (Watts, 1982). In an effort to ensure quality in the profession serious attempts are being made in the United States to foster National Teacher Examinations.

While in 1982, 18 states required teacher testing for certification (Vlaanderen, 1982), the tests continue to come in for criticism, as they have done since their beginning in 1940 (Quirk, Witten and Weinberg, 1973). There are those who argue that a national testing program will enhance the integrity of the teaching profession and attract better quality students (Gallegos and Gibson, 1982). It has been claimed that the knowledge that teachers ultimately will have to pass examinations to be registered could encourage training institutions to be more rigorous in the preparation and evaluation of their students, showing thereby more desire to exercise their 'gatekeeping function' (Pugach and Raths, 1982). Others are less hopeful, claiming that the questions teachers are asked in the National Teacher Examinations 'trivialise the profession' and 'provide no real way to separate the competent from the incompetent novice' (Palladino, 1980). What is argued for, instead, is a well-organised internship period during which all aspects of a teacher's work can be assessed fairly by a variety of professionals able to offer advice as well as carry out an evaluation for teacher certification.

The debate on teacher certification is far from ended. It is hard to see how teacher testing at a national level, for example, will produce a substantial change in the quality of teaching in schools. The problem still lies with those wanting to enter the profession and how to assess their abilities before they are offered a quality program of training. It is also hard to accept the idea that national teacher testing would enhance the image of the teaching profession if it is applied only to teachers seeking certification at the start of their career. What is to happen to those teachers who have already been granted a lifelong licence to teach and who might not fare so well if subjected to rigorous evaluation or to a National Examination? While the idea of teacher testing sounds appealing 'most of the rhetoric advancing the cause is far ahead of the technology needed in the fields of measurement and assessment to deliver it' (Pugach and Raths, 1982, p19).

Conclusion

How to improve the quality of the teaching profession by selecting suitable applicants for training and by making sound appointments to schools continues to present difficulties. A particularly significant problem at the present time is how to attract able and suited students wanting to train as teachers.

We are more likely to find answers to many of the present difficulties if we can achieve closer collaboration amongst the professionals working in teacher education, educational authorities, employing authorities, educational researchers, teacher groups and teachers working in schools. Such collaboration may not be easy to achieve (Howsam, 1982) but it would be a major step forward if, in setting up collaborative working groups, matters such as the following could be high on the agenda: recruitment for training; criteria for selection; the provision of adequate counselling for students in training; the appointment of teachers to schools; the initial certification of teachers and the subsequent approval of teachers as professional scholars.

References

Anderson, D.S. (1974), *The Development of Student-Teachers — A Comparative Study,* Paris, OECD.

Auchmuty, J. (1980) (Chairman) *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education.* AGPS, Canberra.

Bingham, R.D. and Hardy, G.R. (1981) *Prospective Teacher Selection and Personal Development: Using Pre-service Counsellors as Facilitators.* ERIC ED 199 214.

Bolton, D.L. (1973) *Selection and Evaluation of Teachers.* McCutchan Publishing Co., Berkeley, California.

Brubaker, H. (1976) *Who Should Become a Teacher? Current Student Selection/Retention Policies of Teacher Education Institutions.* ERIC ED 115 608.

Bryant, B.J., Lawlis, P., Nicholsen, E. and Maher, B.P. (1978) *What Employers Consider Important in Hiring Teachers.* ERIC ED 196 838.

Carpenter, J.A. (1973) *A Survey of the Criteria for the Selection of Undergraduate Candidates for Admission to Teacher Training.* ERIC ED. 070 758.

Crocker, A.C. (1974) *Predicting Teaching Success.* Slough, NFER.

De Landsheere, G. (1980) Teacher Selection. *Prospects,* X (3), 318-24.

Department of Education and Science (DES) (1983) *Teaching in Schools: The Content of Initial Training,* HMSO, London.

Eash, M.J. and Rasher, S.P. (1977) *An Evaluation of Changed Inputs On Outcomes in Teacher Education Curriculum.* ERIC ED 150 203.

Eaton, E. (1979) *The Phenomenon of Student Withdrawal at Universities in Australia. A Review of Literature Concerning Factors Associated with Academic Performance and Discontinuance.* Office for Research in Academic Methods, Australian National University, Canberra.

Gallegos, A.M. and Gibson, H. (1982) Are we sure the quality of teachers is declining? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 64 (1), 33.

Gress, J.R. (1977) *A Study of the Reliability, Validity and Usefulness of Identified Pre-teaching Predictors.* ERIC ED 151 306.

Haberman, M. (1974) Needed: New Guidelines for Teacher Candidate Selection. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXV (3), 234-5.

Haberman, M. and Stinett, T.M. (1973) *Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching.* McCutchan Publishing Co., Berkeley, California.

Hopfengardner, J.D., Lasley, T. and Joseph, E.A. (1983), Recruiting pre-service teacher education students. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIV (4), 10-13.

Howey, K., Yarger, S. and Joyce, B. (1978) Reflections on pre-service preparation: Impressions from the national survey. Part IX: Institutions and programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXIX (1), 38-40.

Howsam, R.B. (1982) The future of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIII (4), 2-7.

Howsam, R.B., Corrigan, D.C., Denmark, G.W. and Nash, R.J. (1976) *Educating a Profession.* American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, DC.

Laman, A.E. and Reeves, D.E. (1983) Admission to teacher education programs: the status and trends. *Journal of Teacher Education*,1 XXXIV (1), 2-4.

Mercer, W.A. (1984) Teacher education admission requirements: Alternatives for black prospective teachers and other minorities. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXV (1), 26-9.

Mertens, S.K. and Yarger, S.J. (1982) Escape from deja vu. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIII (4), 8-12.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1979a) *Teacher Policies in a New Context.* OECD, Paris.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1979b) *Future Educational Policies in the Changing Social and Economic Context.* OECD, Paris.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1979c) *Admission Policies in Post-Secondary Education: A Survey on Selection for Entry into the Teaching Profession.* OECD, Paris.

Palladino, J. (1980) *The Charade of Testing Teacher Competency.* ERIC ED 196 901.

Pugach, M.C. and Raths, J.D. (1982) Teacher education in multicultural settings. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIII (6), 13-21.

Quirk, T.J., Witten, B.J. and Weinberg, S.F. (1973) Review of studies of the concurrent and predictive validity of the national teacher examination. *Review of Educational Research*, 43 (1), 89-113.

Rawlinson, R.W. and Burnard, I.R. Selection for teacher education: Policies and practices in Australia. (Unpublished). Cited in Auchmuty, J. (1980).

Reed, B. (1976) Selection of promising high school graduates as future teachers: An experiment. *Improving College and University Teaching*, 24 (1), 37-9.

Shank, K.S. (1978) *Nationwide Survey of Practices in Selection and Retention of Teacher Education Candidates.* ERIC ED 167, 539.

Taylor, W. (1978) *Research and Reform in Teacher Education.* Slough, NFER.

Tom, A.R. (1981) An alternative set of NCATE standards. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXII (6), 48-52.

Vlaanderen, R.B. (1982) Teacher competency testing: Status report. *Education and Measurement: Issues and Practices*, 1 (2), 17-20, 27.

Watts, D. (1980) Admission standards for teacher preparatory programs: time for a change. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62 (2), 120-2.

Watts, D. (1982) Can campus-based pre-service teacher education survive? Part IV: Accreditation and certification. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIII (4), 22-3.

Weaver, W.T. (1981a) *The Tragedy of the Commons: The Effects of Supply and Demand on the Talent Pool.* ERIC ED 204 261.

Weaver, W.T. (1981b) The talent pool in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXII (3), 32-6.

Wheller, C.W. (1980) *NCATE: Does it Matter?* ERIC ED 195 551.

Wimpelberg, R.K. and King, J.A. (1983) Rethinking teacher recruitment. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXIV (1), 5-8.

Wisniewski, R. (1981) Quality in teacher education: A reply to Alan Tom. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXII (6), 53-5.

Wood, K.E. (1978) What motivates students to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXIX (6), 48-50.

Young, I.P. (1983) Administrators' perceptions of teacher candidates in dyad and panel interviews. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 19 (2), 46-63.

AUSTRALIAN RESEARCH ON THE PRACTICUM DURING THE LAST DECADE

Richard P. Tisher

Introduction

The practicum has an acknowledged central place in teacher education programs. Trainees consider it the most important, satisfying, relevant, practical, worthwhile feature of their pre-service education. They believe they gain from it; they say it is the most realistic feature in their course; and they want its quantity and quality increased. Teacher educators state that, ideally, the practicum allows trainees to apply, refine and reconstruct the 'theoretical' learnings developed in method and foundation studies. It is also generally accepted that the practicum has the potential to affect trainees' management and other teaching skills and, for some supervising teachers, it may well be an important, effective form of in-service education.

However, despite these features, the practicum continues to present problems for teacher educators, supervising teachers and trainees. For instance, there are difficulties with respect to scheduling practice periods, obtaining supervisory teachers, allocating time to the supervisory process, and providing a range of professional experiences for trainees. Also, for a proportion of trainees the practicum remains a confusing, threatening and disappointing experience. The practicum is a complex enterprise since, on the one hand, it is affected by the expectations and demands of the schools, the tertiary institutions, the supervising teachers and method lecturers, and on the other, by the nature of the pupils and classroom dynamics. That is, its complexity lies in the variety of people involved in it, the range of social, political and educational ideas associated with it, and the processes used to help trainees operate effectively in the classroom and reflect on their own teaching.

Teacher educators' knowledge about the practicum seems to be shaped primarily from their personal experiences and perceptions shared with other colleagues and supervising teachers. It seems to be rare for educational theories, in particular theories about professional socialisation, professional development and acquisition of teaching skills to be used as a source of knowledge about the practicum and its effects. Likewise, it appears that teacher educators rarely prefer to, use or act upon knowledge about the practicum that has been obtained through research, yet, in Australia, for example, there is a local research literature on the topic. Why is this source of knowledge so rarely used? Is the research base inadequate for an understanding of the nature of the practicum? Are the findings trite and hence do not compel teacher educators to act? In order to address these questions it is necessary first to review the Australian research on the practicum, and this brief paper reports on a review of the research during the last decade.

As there are no previous reports of Australian reviews the first aim of this exercise was to gain as much information as possible about the products (findings) of the Australian research. In order to assess the strengths, limitations and future directions of the research it was also necessary, however, to pay some attention to the ways in which the projects were conducted. For this review empirical investigations, that is surveys, action research, case studies, evaluations, reflection on anecdotal data, as well as pre-, post-test designs (with or without interventions) were deemed to belong to research on the topic. Philosophical treatises, descriptions of course arrangements, procedures and principles, and position papers on the practicum, were excluded. Details about the research were obtained from a variety of sources, for example, from journals (*Australian Journal of Education, The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, Australian Journal of Teaching Practice*), published reports, 'in-house' documents from state education departments and colleges of advanced education, and conference papers (including those from the national conferences on the practicum in 1975, 1980 and 1985). About ninety documents were consulted. The majority were summarised and catalogued, and forty appear in the reference list to illustrate the variety in the research. The following sections summarise the research findings and address the three questions posed above. The first section deals with the studies on the characteristics of trainees during practice teaching, trainees' teaching skills in the practicum, and their self-assessments of their teaching competence during the practicum. The second section reports on the investigations about supervision, supervisors and the training of supervisory teachers. The final section reflects on the nature of the research, addresses the questions posed above and suggests some future directions for research on the practicum.

About half (51 per cent) of the investigatory projects were cross-sectional surveys using questionnaire or interview techniques to collect data. About 14 per cent can be described as case studies and a comparable proportion as action research projects. Only 10 per cent involved pre- and post-testing where data were collected at the beginning and end of a short period of time, for example, a three-week practice teaching period. Two projects were concerned with the design and validation of instruments to evaluate teaching competence. Generally the projects were of a short duration. One case study for instance dealt with a two-and-a-half hour seminar while one of the longer action research projects spanned six weeks. In a majority of cases the investigatory subjects were persons enrolled in courses taught by the principal investigators and the majority of the studies involved students from colleges of advanced education.

Research on Characteristics, Skills and Self-Assessment

With respect to the characteristics of trainees before, during and after practice teaching, research workers have examined such things as changes in attitudes towards 'hands on' experiences for pupils (Appleton, 1981), levels of anxiety (Sinclair and Nicholl, 1981), self-perceived needs (Gunstone and Mackay, 1975), and alterations in professional self-image (Coulter, 1974). One project dealt with the impact of the practicum on trainees' socialisation into teaching (Matthews, 1980), several have examined their perceptions about the quality of the practicum (Hewitson, 1981; Love and Swain, 1980; Thursby, 1980), one, their beliefs as to whether they had learnt a great deal during school experience (Poole and Gaudry, 1974), and another, on changes in their self-assessment of their knowledge of curriculum content, teaching competence and attitude to teaching (Young, 1979).

A few projects have dealt with aspects of teaching skills. In one (Fawns, 1977), the questioning strategies employed by six Diploma in Education students who were using the ASEP unit on 'Forces' were mapped. The Smith and Meux classificatory system was employed to categorise the intellectual demands made by the trainees and the findings were compared with those of an earlier study involving Queensland teachers following a conventional combined science program (Tisher, 1970). It was noted that the proportion of lower cognitive questions (26 per cent) in the trainees' lessons was much less than what had occurred in the experienced teachers' lessons (75 per cent). Another study (Grundy, 1986), ascertained the ways in which student teachers are implicitly guided in their thinking about and analysis of teaching by their supervising teachers. The researcher wanted to discover whether the trainees were guided to be more technical or craft oriented or more professionally oriented. It was noted that trainees were being guided to be both professionally and technically oriented. One investigation, involving path analysis, studied trainees' self-reported patterns of teaching behaviours and their associations with personal and setting specific presses (Taylor, 1980), while another (Skamp and Power, 1981) gathered information about trainees' perceptions of inquiry teaching and the extent to which they implemented lessons with inquiry characteristics. The findings from these last mentioned projects and the ones referred to in the preceding paragraph are summarised in Tables 1 and 2 using phrases derived from the respective research reports.

As the preceding discussion indicates objective observational studies detailing change in trainees' teaching skills are rare. One reason may be that the task is too complex and arduous. Another may be that teacher educators are not interested in assessing whether there have been developments in teaching skills. Be that as it may, some investigators have attempted to develop schedules for assessing trainees' teaching competencies. For example, one of these (Hodgson 1980) dealt with instructional procedures, communication skills, the trainees' 'presence', pupil behaviour and lesson content. Another project (Garnett and Taggart, 1983) trialled the Georgia Teacher Performance

Table 1. Characteristics and Skills: 1

1. Trainees' levels of anxiety decline over a practice period but their custodial attitudes increase.
2. School experience is associated with positive changes in primary trainees' self-assessments of their knowledge of curriculum content, teaching competence and attitude to teaching.
3. School experience does little to enhance the professional self-image of some Dip.Ed. students: there can be declines in the dimensions of orderliness, happiness and warmth.
4. Trainees who believe they gained a great deal from teaching practice tend to be those who were closely supervised, received a good response from children and had good school facilities.
5. By and large primary trainees believe they experience desirable things in the practicum. However, they perceive inadequacies with respect to regular communication and interaction with school principals and with opportunities to observe effective teachers in different classrooms.
6. Highly ranked self-perceived needs of Dip.Ed. students before and after a practice teaching period are the abilities to cope in the classroom, gain practical teaching skills, develop relevant understandings and explore one's own capabilities.
7. Primary trainees' attitudes towards hand-on experiences for pupils declines during a practice teaching period. Males become more positive in their feelings about their own teaching of science, whereas females become more negative.
8. Only two out of five pre-service primary teachers alter their broad perceptions of inquiry teaching with more specific detail after instruction in curriculum and practice teaching. By and large trainees lack clear perceptions to adequately implement inquiry teaching.

Assessment Instruments (TPAI) with Western Australian secondary trainees to explore whether they might be applicable in Australian conditions. The TPAI consists of four instruments dealing with Teaching Plans and Materials, Classroom Procedures, Interpersonal Skills and Professional Standards. These instruments focus on a total of 16 teaching skills which have 51 associated descriptors. Fourteen third-year trainees who each taught eight 40 minute lessons were scored on the 16 teaching skills. The investigators state they obtained reasonable correlations between these scores and measures (class means) of pupil engagement, pupil achievement and pupil perceptions of their learning environment in the practice classes.

In three other projects, a working model for reflective teaching practice (Evans, 1980), the utilisation of a clinical observation system (Preston and Baker, 1985), and a collaborative planning and review exercise (Fawns, 1984), trainees were required to reflect on their own and their supervising teachers' classroom behaviour. The first involved ten primary school personnel, twelve trainees and several lecturers who collaborated together to plan teaching sessions, gather data about this teaching and reflect on that teaching. The investigator (Evans, 1980) maintained that the project was successful, due in large measure to the effective interpersonal relations that were established and to the fact that all collaborators were committed to the program. In the second project trainees were required to use a clinical observation system to examine the teaching skills employed by their supervising teachers.

Table 2. Characteristics and Skills: 2

1. The image of the teacher promoted by supervisors is that of an active decision maker. That is, trainees are guided to be both professionally and technically, or craft, oriented.
2. A proportion of trainees believe college studies should be of more help to them in the practicum than they are. They could do more to develop classroom and evaluation skills, and professional attitudes.
3. Student teachers ask more questions of their pupils in demonstration-discussion phases. About 22 per cent of the demands on pupils are higher-cognitive and 50 per cent management ones.
4. Low ability primary trainees (*i.e.* those receiving low teaching marks) appear (a) to receive inconsistent assistance with lesson planning and (b) to be given less freedom to use teaching methods and approaches which differ from those of the supervising teachers.
5. About 75 per cent of supervisory teachers and their trainees say there is a need for a clinical observation system during practice teaching, about 50 per cent express an interest in it but very few (of the order of 1 in 5) make any use of it.
6. A deliberate six-week program aimed to help trainees reflect on their own teaching and be self-critical and which uses diary records, videotapes and discussions, is successful in developing trainees' perspectives about pupils, fluctuating experiences in teaching and difficulties associated with collegial collaboration.
7. Two factors associated with the successful implementation of a model for reflective teaching practice are commitment to the model (or program) and effective interpersonal relations among the collaborating teachers, trainees and lecturers.

They were briefed about the compilation of objectives, data records and the phases in the system (*i.e.* observation of a teaching skill being demonstrated by their supervising teacher, data collection, and post-observation conference with the teacher about the data record). A follow-up revealed that although trainees and teachers saw value in the system very few actually used it (Preston and Baker 1985). In the final project pairs of Dip.Ed. students were given the responsibility of teaching a science topic to small groups of secondary school pupils during a six-week period. About 40 Dip.Eds. would meet together regularly an hour before they began teaching to discuss plans and to review previous activities. Each one kept a diary record and was video-taped on a set number of occasions. Post-lesson discussions also occurred during which videotapes could be reviewed. The objectives were to encourage Dip.Eds. to collaborate, to reflect self-critically on their own teaching and, together, to formulate alternate teaching strategies. Whereas the collaboration wasn't all smooth sailing, they valued the experience and developed positive perspectives about the pupils (Fawns, 1984). The findings from these three studies are summarised in Table 2. These three action research projects differ from the other investigations listed in this section: the researchers had to consider a number, rather than a few, of the complex factors affecting the nature and outcomes of teacher education.

A variety of factors have also been considered in several projects that have examined the value of various forms of school-based or internship practice teaching. For example, in one case, the degree to which units days provided opportunities for trainees to observe and practice teaching skills was assessed (Preston, 1980). In another instance, investigators (Lloyd, Smith and Thompson, 1986) assessed the impact that a highly focused, two hours per week, school-based process writing skills program had on 30 second-year trainees. Trainees maintained that their confidence in process writing and their insights into the school's program were enhanced. In another evaluation of a three days per week internship practice in schools (Asquith and Ferguson, 1986), the investigators state that most trainees believed their experiences were valuable and important and that the aims of the internship were achieved.

Research on Supervision and Supervisors

During the last decade a number of investigators have directed their attention to the nature of the supervisory process and how its quality might be enhanced, for example through simulation activities (Green and Boyd, 1986). Consequently, several projects have been conducted to map the nature of practice teaching supervision and the characteristics of good supervisors. These projects include surveys on the responsibilities (Briggs, 1984; Danaher, Elliott and Marland, 1982), effectiveness (Eltis and Cairns, 1982) and general characteristics (Yarrow *et al.* 1984) of supervising teachers. Two detailed studies on the characteristics of excellent supervisors (Price and Sellars, 1985; 1986) and on the adequacy and quality of supervision (Duck and Cunningham, 1985) have been reported recently. In the first one, 57 primary teachers who had been rated as excellent supervisors were interviewed to obtain their perceptions on a range of supervisory issues such as planning and post-observation conferences, expectations and elements of successful supervision. The trainees who had been assigned to them were also consulted and from the total interview data an excellent supervisor profile was constructed on 16 dimensions, including the arrangement and conduct of effective pre- and post-lesson discussions, deliberate collection of data about teaching and being a good teaching model. The report contained no information, however, about how the trainees performed during practice teaching or about the effectiveness of the supervisors in enhancing trainees' skills or capacity to reflect self-critically on their own teaching.

In the second project (Duck and Cunningham, 1985), 1389 people were sampled from 14 teacher training programs in Queensland to determine what discrepancies existed between their ideals for practice supervision and what actually occurred. The sample included final year trainees, supervising teachers and lecturers. The rating data indicated that the trainees and the supervising teachers believed that the greatest discrepancies between the ideal and actuality occurred with respect to providing feedback on curriculum plans, discussing and assisting in the development of these plans and in discussing one's own lessons.

In a case study of five Torres Strait Islanders undertaking a special teacher education program (Osborne and Henderson, 1985; 1986) the investigators noted that for one trainee poor communication between trainee and supervising teacher was a major contributing factor to the problems experienced by that student teacher. Management, responding to pupils' answers, pausing and the use of facial expression were skills that were underdeveloped in all of these trainees and consequently were matters of concern.

Research workers have also directed their efforts to programs for enhancing teachers' supervisory skills (Edmonds, 1980; Eltis and Turney, 1984; Meggit, 1980; Preston, 1986; Sellars, 1981; Swinburne, 1983). In one of these, teachers were able to attend a two-and-a-half hour seminar on clinical supervision during a practice teaching period while the student teachers took the 'time-released' teachers' classes (Preston, 1986). The investigators believed that the use of student teachers to release teachers was a workable arrangement, and that the seminar was successful even though many of the teachers did not use many aspects of the clinical observation model in subsequent dealings with their trainees.

Other developers report that slightly longer workshops on supervisory skills, for example for six to ten hours (Eltis and Turner, 1984; Edmonds, 1980) or, for one day (Sellars, 1981), tend to be beneficial in increasing supervisors' understanding of the role of feedback and generally assisting them in the supervisory process. When these workshops are combined with on-site personalised help for members of the training institutions (Swinburne, 1983) teachers express a great deal of satisfaction. Unfortunately, there is no information about the extent to which supervisory skills have been enhanced as a consequence of the various programs. Furthermore, the reports present scant details about the nature of the short courses or workshops so that it is difficult to replicate training programs, although it does appear that providing models of supervision, opportunities for role-play and opportunities to practice supervisory skills are important features of training programs (Edmonds, 1980).

Table 3. Supervision and the Supervisory Process

1. Trainees and supervising teachers believe that there are discrepancies between ideal and actual supervision especially with respect to feedback on curriculum plans, discussion and development of curriculum plans and discussion of one's own lessons.
2. Teachers and trainees believe that effective supervisors are well organised, are good teaching models, assist trainees to gain rapport with classes, collect data about trainees' teaching and arrange and conduct effective pre- and post-lesson discussions.
3. Fourth year B.Ed. students believe professional dialogue and concern for improved teaching are essential features of good supervision.
4. Supervisory personnel from colleges should possess a number of qualities according to teachers, school administrators, college staff and trainees. The highly desirable ones are fairness, approachability and consistency while other desirable ones are the abilities to be considerate, friendly and tactful.
5. Comparisons between university and school supervisors indicate that in some instances master teachers are perceived to be more effective with respect to their instructor, observer and counsellor roles than the tertiary supervisors. In other instances the reverse is true.
6. Problems with respect to practice supervision are generally related to failures in communication.
7. Supervisory teachers express concerns about insufficient time to talk with trainees, anxiety about writing reports, and lack of support from college staff.
8. Lecturers believe that they are not welcome in schools, teachers rarely read practicum handouts, and teachers do not know how best to help trainees.
9. Supervisory teachers react positively to supervisor training workshops, and to assistance with the supervisory process.
10. Short (3 by 2 hour) workshops can develop teachers' awareness and understanding of the role played by supervisory feedback to trainees. Modelling, role playing and practice of skills are important components in workshop programs.
11. On-site supervisory training programs which include personalised help are favoured by teachers.

The findings related to the investigations on supervision and the supervisory process are summarised in Table 3 using phrases comparable to those in the various research reports.

Reflections and Future Directions

The preceding sections present a state of the art of Australian research on the practicum and outline the issues addressed, some of the methodologies that have been used and a number of the findings. The discussion was preceded, at the beginning of the paper, with a statement that it appeared to be rare for teacher educators to act upon the findings or the implications of the research. Now if it is assumed that the extent to which action (as a consequence of research) occurs is an index of the credibility and usefulness of that research, then one conclusion is that both its credibility and usefulness appear to have very low ratings. The assessment that teacher educators rarely act upon the research findings was based on the fact that there are few readily available published statements indicating that the opposite is true. Now that does not necessarily mean the research has had no impact whatsoever. It is very difficult to discover, for example, the extent to which projects have affected the institutions in which they occurred or the programs with which they were associated. It could be the case that research findings have greater relevance and impact on 'the contexts' in which the research was conducted. Consequently, teacher educators in other situations might only regard the findings as interesting, but not compelling. If that is the case, there is a challenge to researchers to replicate projects in a variety of contexts so that, in an iterative manner, our understandings about the nature of the practicum can be extended, and be made more compelling for teacher educators in various contexts. The successes that have been achieved, for instance, in such projects as the working model for reflective teaching practice, and the reflective, collaborative, school-based mode for Dip.Ed. programs are a challenge to others to emulate the work and to ascertain what successes can be obtained in other training programs. Likewise, the disappointments with respect to the results of several endeavours with clinical observation and clinical supervision constitute a challenge to others to ascertain whether these models will be implemented in other contexts when different modes of presenting the models have been used. For example, it would be useful to check whether training programs of a longer duration than the ones reported here are more effective. Also, it is important to ascertain whether the effectiveness of clinical supervision workshops is enhanced when investigators first take account of, and work from, the perspectives and needs of supervising teachers before introducing them to the clinical model, *e.g.* the partnership style advocated by Ruddock and Sigsworth (1985). Of course, any attempts to replicate the various action research projects on clinical observation and supervision must heed Elliott's (1980) advice to maintain a high critical perspective on all that is done and not stop short at classroom, school-bound, or college-bound interpretive or phenomenological descriptions.

Whereas the replication of previous projects is deemed to be important so that our understanding of the practicum will be enhanced in an iterative manner, a caveat is in order. Our understanding of the practicum cannot grow primarily through the massive accumulation of findings. Theoretical underpinnings are also required. Unfortunately, a considerable proportion of the research on the practicum, in Australia and elsewhere, takes place in a theoretical vacuum and at the same time neglects the influences and interactions from other components of the teacher education program. The research is not associated with any second order theory about how to educate people to be effective teachers, and it does seem necessary to link it with some theoretical framework in order to build an inter-related effective knowledge network.

The various projects address important issues in the practicum but often the circumstances surrounding the investigations, *e.g.* small number of research personnel, time constraints, scheduling of the practicum, the labour-intensive nature of projects, administrative or regulatory constraints and lack of adequate financial support, mean that the focus of a study has to be relatively narrow, the interactions from other program components cannot be considered, and no consideration is given to motives, intentions and beliefs of the persons involved in the practicum. This last mentioned omission can invoke a criticism that the research appears to assume that human behaviour (teaching skills) has characteristics which exist independent of and external to the intentions and motives of the people involved and, as a consequence, distort the issues being studied. To avoid this criticism it is essential that future projects take more account of the intentions and motives of those involved in the practicum. This implies that teacher educators, as well as trainees and supervising teachers, should be among the foci for study. McIntyre (1980) also advocates this. He stresses the important role that ideologies, and how persons construe teaching, and teacher education, when they are thinking about it for themselves, can play in all facets of teacher education, and how these can filter the effect of a program. He suggests that research on teacher educators could contribute to quality in teacher education by making them more aware of their concerns, assumptions and ideologies, and of how these relate to their positions within distinctive types of organisations.

In addition to the suggestions that researchers consider replication of projects in a variety of contexts, extending the length of supervisor training programs, linking research with second order theories, broadening the research focus, and adding teacher educators to the research foci, there are others that may be derived from Katz's (1981) matrix for research on teacher education. For example, one of the cells in her matrix is reserved for information about the interactions between the characteristics of trainees and others with whom they are associated. Presumably one relevant research question would be, 'what interactions occur between trainees and supervisors when there are mismatches between their respective perceptions of effective teaching?' Other questions could be added. At this stage it is deemed appropriate to add only one other matter for consideration. Australian teacher educators need to consider the proposals for a practicum curriculum as enunciated by Turney *et al.* (1985). These proposals should be evaluated and developed by persons, other than Turney *et al.*, in order to evaluate the costs, constraints, and benefits to be derived from the practicum curriculum proposals.

The preceding suggestions are not an exhaustive list of new directions for research but they do contain challenging tasks which will require commitment, effort, tact and ingenuity to complete. When that occurs our understandings about the practicum will be extended and our confidence in that knowledge strengthened.

References

Appleton, K. (1981) Some effects of practice teaching on students' attitudes to teaching science, *Research in Science Education*, 11, 17-25.

Asquith, D. and Ferguson, B. (1986) Internship Practice: Description and evaluation at Wollongong 1983-1985, in collection of papers for *Third National Conference: The Practicum in Teacher Education*, Geelong.

Briggs, F. (1984) The organization of practicum, the responsibilities of the teacher and the college supervisor: A pilot study, *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice*, 4(2), 15-25.

Coulter, F. (1974) The effects of practice on professional self-image, *Australian Journal of Education*, 18, 149-59.

Coulter, F. (1975) Perceptions of classroom behaviour by supervisors and student teachers. Paper presented at the first national conference on the practicum. Mt Lawley Teachers' College, August. Perth.

Danaher, P., Elliott, D. and Marland, P. (1982) Trial and occasional trauma: The student teacher perspective on teaching practice supervision, *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice*, 3(1), 27-40.

Duck, G. and Cunningham, D. (1985) Roles of supervisors in school experience, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 13 (2), 19-29.

Edmonds, J.M. (1980) Rationale, development and evaluation of a course to train school supervisors in supervision skills, in Newman, W. and Atkins, B. (eds.) *The Role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Elliott, J. (1980) Implications of classroom research, in Hoyle, E. and Megarry, J. (eds.) *Professional Development of Teachers*, World Yearbook of Education, 1980. Kogan Page, London.

Eltis, K. and Cairns, L. (1982) Perceived effectiveness of supervisors of the practicum, *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice*, 2(2), 101-9.

Eltis, K. and Turney, C. (1984) Supervisor development programmes: Field test one — the feedback role, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 12(1), 19-30.

Evans, B. (1980) A working model for reflective teaching practice, in Newman, W., and Atkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Fawns, R. (1977) Student teacher questioning in two enquiry directed settings of science teaching, *Research in Science Education*, 7, 203-11.

Fawns, R. (1984) The sources of theoretical principles for science method programs: a new setting explored, *Research in Science Education*, 14, 173-80.

Garnett, P. and Taggart, A. (1983) The use of the Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments for Assessing pre-service secondary students in Western Australia, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 11 (2), 40-53.

Gillett, M. (1986) Clinical supervision and the professional development of teachers, in the collected papers for *Third National Conference. The practicum in teacher education.* Geelong.

Green, E. and Boyd, R. (1986) Exploring the practicum: The development and production of simulation activities for the improvement of supervisory behaviours, a paper and demonstration at *Third National Conference. The practicum in teacher education.* Geelong.

Grundy, S. (1986) The image of the teacher in the post-lesson conference, *The Journal of Teaching Practice*, 6 (1), 60-73.

Gunstone, R. and Mackay, L. (1975) The self-perceived needs of student teachers, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 3 (1), 44-51.

Hewitson, M. (1981) A survey of student opinion and its implications for school and institutional roles in teaching practice, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 9 (2), 29-37.

Hodgson, C.P. (1980) Can student teaching competence be reliably assessed? in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Katz, L. (1981) A matrix for research on teacher education, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 9 (1), 17-30.

Lloyd, D., Smith, K. and Thompson, B. (1986) A workable school-based teacher education model?, in the collection of papers for *Third National Conference. The practicum in teacher education.* Geelong.

Love, J. and Swain, M. (1980) Success in practicum programs: student teacher perceptions, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Matthews, R.J. (1980) Stages in the socialization of trainee teachers, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Meggitt, P.H. (1980) Training supervisors in secondary schools, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

McIntyre, D. (1980) The contribution of research to quality in teacher education, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 8 (1/2), 4-19.

Osborne, B. and Henderson, L. (1985) Black and white perspectives of teaching Practice I: Supervising teachers' perspectives, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 13 (2), 30-43.

Osborne, B. and Henderson, L. (1986) A case study of communication breakdown during cross-cultural teaching practice, a paper presented at *Third National Conference. The practicum in teacher education*, January. Geelong.

Poole, C. and Gaudry, E. (1974) Some effects of teaching practice, *Australian Journal of Education*, 18, 255-63.

Preston, R. (1980) An aspect of a review: the unit day, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Preston, R. (1986) Student teachers: a role in in-service for supervisors, in the collection of papers for *Third National Conference: The practicum in teacher education.* Geelong.

Preston, R. and Baker, R. (1985) An exploratory study of the clinical observation system: A systematic approach to student teacher observations during field experience, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 13 (1), 29-43.

Price, D. and Sellars, N. (1985) A synthesis of effective supervising teacher behaviours in the final year of the primary practicum, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 13 (2), 9-18.

Price, D. and Sellars, N. (1986) Models of supervision — styles and strategies, in the collected papers for *Third National Conference: The practicum in teacher education.* Geelong.

Ruddock, J. and Sigsworth, A. (1985) Partnership supervision (or Goldhammer revisited) in Hopkins, D. and Reid, K. (eds.) *Rethinking teacher education,* Croom Helm, London.

Sellars, N. (1981) A training course for supervisory teachers: An exercise in nettle-grasping, *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice,* 2 (1), 29-45.

Sinclair, K. and Nicholl, V. (1981) Sources and experiences of anxiety in practice teaching, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 9 (1), 1-18.

Skamp, K. and Power, C. (1981) Primary science, inquiry and classroom demands: pre-service teachers' responses and perceptions, *Research in Science Education,* 11, 34-43.

Swinburne, J.M. (1983) *Report on the Teaching Practice Improvement Project,* Faculty of Education, Monash University.

Taylor, J.C. (1980) Path analysis applied to a study of the effectiveness of teacher education, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Thursby, P.M. (1980) An extended practice teaching program: preparing art teachers, in Newman, W. and Arkins, B. (eds.) *The role of school experiences in teacher education: recent trends and future developments.* Collected papers of a national conference on the practicum. Armidale College of Advanced Education.

Tisher, R.P. (1970) The nature of verbal discourse in classrooms, in Campbell, W.J. (ed.) *Scholars in context,* John Wiley, Sydney.

Turney, C., Eltis, K., Towler, J. and Wright, R. (1985) *A new basis for teacher education: The practicum curriculum,* Sydmac Academic Press, Sydney.

Yarrow, A. & assoc. (1984) The characteristics of college personnel involved in field studies, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 12 (1), 39-51.

Young, W. (1979) Teaching practice: effects on knowledge, skills and attitudes in initial training, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 7 (1), 23-7.

THE PLACE OF INDUCTION IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Richard P. Tisher

This paper deals briefly with the place of induction in professional development, the characteristics and effects of induction provisions, assumptions about induction, and some innovations that could, with profit, be adopted to induct new and experienced teachers into their roles. The point is made that induction should not be reserved for beginning teachers but expanded to include part-time teachers, late appointees and experienced teachers taking on new roles.

Induction and its Clientele

This paper is concerned with the *place* of induction in professional development and it will deal with the characteristics and effects of induction provisions. Generally, teacher induction is considered to be the initiation, or the introduction of persons into teaching and it is deemed to begin when trainee teachers commence their pre-service education, or when they first go out on practice teaching or, alternatively, when newly trained teachers accept their first teaching appointment. A majority of employing authorities pinpoint the beginning of induction to this time of acceptance and make formal provisions to initiate the newly appointed teachers into their job. Teacher induction may also be considered, however, to refer to other initiations in the life of experienced teachers, for example to initiations into new roles such as subject co-ordinator, school principal or regional education officer. These entries into new roles appear to be as significant, if not more so, than the entry of the neophyte into the profession, but employing authorities seem to make few formal provisions to initiate experienced teachers into them. In this paper it is assumed that the induction of individuals into teaching or into new roles within the profession is part of the process of professional socialisation. Consequently, what is done or what may be done during induction contributes to an individual's professional development.

Now induction has informal as well as formal components. Informal help and guidance, including advice from colleagues on how to proceed, can be of great assistance to new and experienced teachers. Unfortunately it is extremely difficult to document what types of informal support are most effective and it is extremely difficult to guarantee that a majority of teachers will receive informal support when it is required or sought (Newbury, 1978). Some teachers prefer to remain as uninvolved in induction as possible, display a reluctance to help colleagues and believe others should cope on their own. For these and other reasons it is necessary that formal steps be taken to induct newly trained and experienced teachers into their new professional roles. In the ensuing discussion teacher induction will refer to the *formal* initiation of new trained and experienced teachers into their new roles and by which they come to be, at a basic level, professionally competent and personally at ease in that role. Since individuals approach their new roles with different repertoires of skills and experiences, the appropriate length of induction will vary from one individual to another. For newly trained teachers there appears to be a general consensus that from one to three years may be involved. Most informal provisions however are offered during the first year of service and most frequently (or so it appears) to those new teachers who take up their appointments at the beginning of the school year. Those who take up appointments during the second or third term, or who are hired on a casual or 'relief-system' basis appear to receive fewer formal induction provisions yet their induction needs will be as great, if not greater than their neophyte colleagues appointed at the beginning of the year. For experienced teachers there appears to be no general consensus on the length of their induction into new roles. It might be argued that from one to three years should also be involved but more data are required on the issue. There is no doubt that a period of induction is required.

The Need for Induction

That teacher induction is required can be substantiated from research and from the opinions expressed by experienced teachers, educational administrators and those being inducted. A number of investigators from European countries (Note 1), North America (Note 2), Australia (Note 3) and New Zealand (Note 4) have, for example, compiled information about beginning teachers' concerns, problems, job satisfaction and control ideology and their findings imply that although new teachers perceive they have problems with teaching, they want to improve and they require help. All teachers in fact perceive problems with teaching: those in their first years perceive more than their experienced colleagues. It is significant that, across nations, for primary and secondary teachers, the lists of beginning teachers' most salient problems are remarkably similar. Recent international reviews (Veenman, 1982; Veenman, Berkelaar and Berkelaar-Tomeson, 1983) conclude that the six most highly ranked problems are:

- classroom discipline
- motivating students
- dealing with individual differences
- relations with parents
- dealing with the problems of individual students
- assessing students' work.

This list is comparable to one obtained in a representative national sample of Australian primary and secondary teachers (Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor, 1979).

Table 1.

Percentages of beginning teachers managing and worrying about teaching tasks toward the end of their first year of teaching (based on Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor, 1979: 49).

I	II	III	IV*
Teaching task	worrying	Those managing adequately	Those managing & worrying
Teaching groups with wide ability range	63	55	26
Teaching slow learners	62	48	22
Evaluating own teaching	55	64	25
Motivating pupils	54	67	26
Discovering level at which to teach	47	73	25
Teaching specific skills (*e.g.* reading)	41	64	23
Controlling classes	39	78	22
Assessing students' work	37	80	20
Devising schemes of work	35	86	25
Teaching immigrants	30	36	11

* Column IV indicates the overlap between columns II and III.

Table 1, which contains the relevant findings, also distinguishes between the proportion of new teachers who, though worried about an issue, also believe they are coping adequately with it. This feature is rarely highlighted in studies of beginning teachers' concerns.

Provisions for inducting teachers are not only predicated on the grounds that new teachers need help in their first years of teaching. Some individuals believe there are weaknesses in pre-service teacher education which must be redressed and some employing authorities and professional associations desire to maintain some control over teacher education.

The needs or concerns of experienced teachers as they enter new roles is not as well documented as those of new teachers but general information on anxiety, stress and job satisfaction and anecdotal data from teachers suggests that these experienced teachers could also profit from guidance given through formal induction provisions.

The Nature of Induction for Beginning Teachers

Although there were a few experimental induction programs in the USA during the seventies the commitment to formal provisions in that country has, by and large, not been as great or as consistent as in Britain, Australia and New Zealand (Zeichner, 1979a). The provisions however in Britain, Australia and New Zealand and in the USA experimental programs are similar (Note 5). New teachers may receive and benefit from some or all of the following:

Prior to or on appointment

- school orientation visits to the school of appointment or others in the nearby region.
- printed materials containing information about conditions of employment, facilities available to teachers, school policies, rules and administrative procedures.

Upon and after appointment

- reductions in teaching load. This is achieved by either a reduction in actual allocated time for teaching in each week, or a reduction in the size of the classes taught, or (in secondary schools), a reduction in the range of classes taught (*e.g.* to ninth grade only) with a corresponding reduction in the amount of lesson preparation.
- released time to attend regular one day or half-day in-service workshops or to visit other schools.
- regular (*e.g.* weekly or monthly) counselling meetings within the school. The meetings are generally organised and conducted by an experienced colleague or a visiting consultant, either being specially appointed for the purpose.
- lengthy (4 to 8 days) conferences or workshops conducted by experienced colleagues and other resource personnel in locations away from the school.

Conferences, workshops, and counselling meetings involve discussions, seminars, group work, simulated exercises, lectures, critical incidents and role-playing. By and large the issues that figure prominently include those that appear in a normal pre-service education program namely, lesson planning and preparation, classroom discipline and management, questioning and review strategies, procedures for evaluating pupil progress and motivation in the classroom. Furthermore, where counselling meetings are involved, experienced colleagues also visit classrooms and observe lessons given by new teachers. To a lesser degree new teachers are permitted to visit and observe lessons given by their experienced colleagues.

The consultants or colleagues who are appointed to conduct conferences, workshops or counselling meetings are sometimes, but not always, specially trained for their role in induction. Training provisions exist in Britain and Australia (Thurstans, 1979; Young, 1979) where it is also assumed that a professional tutor will be based in the school, be released from some normal teaching duties and maintain contacts with resource units (*e.g.* regional teachers' centres) that can provide specialist assistance (Young, 1979). In one Australian state the training of induction tutors is conceived as part of in-service education for experienced teachers. The strategy is to train three experienced teachers as induction tutors whose responsibilities for the professional development of new teachers in their school lasts for a specific number of years after which time another three experienced colleagues are trained to assume the responsibilities. Each tutor receives a substantial resource folder (Queensland In-Service Education Committee, 1981) containing ideas for school-based induction programs and for professional development.

The Effects of Induction for Beginning Teachers

It is appropriate to note that even though formal provisions occur to induct new teachers a proportion do not receive them. Those that do are satisfied with them, and would like other new teachers to receive them (in particular, the opportunity to visit experienced teachers' classes). Only about half of the recipients however, see much value in the provisions (Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor, 1979; Zeichner, 1979a). There is actually no compelling evidence for the superiority of one induction provision over another (Zeichner, 1979a) although different forms of released time are better than no provision at all and supervised released time during which new teachers consult with experienced colleagues, engage in professional activities, visit research centres and plan teaching activities are superior to unsupervised release (Bradley and Eggleston, 1978): the supervised teachers appear to become more confident and less frustrated with teaching than unsupervised ones.

The quantitative research literature has little to say about the effect of induction on teaching strategies and skills: the findings from several experimental studies are equivocal (Zeichner, 1979a). This research literature is also devoid of information on the effects of the provisions on pupil achievement. This does not mean that there have been no effects. In fact it is extremely difficult, over a short period of time, to tease out the effects of induction provisions using quantitative procedures. Qualitative data such as new teachers' expressions of satisfaction about induction and their opinions that others should also benefit from induction provisions can be interpreted to indicate that formal provisions should not be abandoned and that they have an important place.

Assumptions About Induction

Induction is assumed to be part of the socialisation of teachers into the profession but very little has been written about the processes underlying it. There appear to be only a few attempts at explanatory theories (Lacy, 1977; Zeichner, 1979b) and none to provide empirical information. At this stage it seems that educationalists will have to rely on the few preliminary explanatory theories and the literature about the socialisation of persons into other cultures or groups (*c.f.* Biddle, 1979) if they are to gain some insights into the underlying processes.

Very little has also been written about the objectives of induction. It is rare, for example, for education authorities to declare objectives for the various formal provisions for the induction of new teachers although they may declare the roles of principal, beginning teacher counsellors and regional education officers in induction. The purposes of beginning teacher induction may be inferred from the nature of the formal provisions. These have been assumed to be:

1. to extend the teachers' knowledge about the school and the educational system and how both function;
2. to increase the teachers' awareness and comprehension of the complexities of teaching situations and to suggest alternative ways of coping with these complexities;
3. to acquaint the teachers with support services and resources within the school and the region;
4. to help teachers (generally through counselling activities) to apply knowledge they already possess, or could obtain for themselves, to the daily tasks or problems which confront them. (Tisher, 1980, p81)

These objectives, and especially number 4, could apply equally as well to the induction of experienced teachers into new roles. If these are accepted, however, as the purposes of induction, it seems there is another underlying assumption about induction. Note, that either by intention, or oversight, the inductees are, by and large, cast into the role of receivers and induction tutors or counsellors or other experienced colleagues are cast in the role of providers. Only with respect to the fourth objective does there seem to be an acknowledgement that inductees and induction counsellors may interact as collaborative problem-solvers. It seems that the creative potential of teachers, and that they may be resources with new ideas, are ignored. Induction appears to be based on a deficit-dependency model (Dean, 1977; Stammers, 1979): it is assumed that teachers, new teachers in particular, are deficient in their knowledge of the educative process and instructional strategies, and hence must depend upon, and receive advice from other more experienced colleagues. When a deficit-dependency model is accepted, overtly or covertly, a greater emphasis is placed on the constraining rather than the creative features in the socialisation process associated with induction. If induction is to be of high quality then more allowances need to be made for the creative potential of teachers. Some ways in which this may be done are discussed in the subsequent section on other induction initiatives.

Other Induction Initiatives

In recent years there have been a number of initiatives such as clinical supervision (Smyth, 1983; Smyth and Strachan, 1981), reflective teaching (Note 6) and personal initiatives in professional development (Tisher, 1983) aimed at fostering professional development, enhancing teachers' awareness about the effects of their classroom behaviours and improving teachers' instructional skills. Aspects of these initiatives could, with some profit, be adopted to the induction of new and experienced teachers into their new roles. The initiatives have a number of things in common and are based on three important assumptions (or beliefs) that have implications for the role of induction supervisors (or counsellors) and the manner in which induction is conducted. The first belief is that teachers are creative, knowledgeable people who can on their own initiatives, contribute to their professional competence and development. The second is that teaching is a collaborative profession and although teachers are competent persons, the complex and arduous nature of the job means people cannot 'go it alone'. Collaboration involves sharing ideas, giving and receiving assistance, and co-operation with others to solve problems. These two beliefs imply that persons responsible for induction, or other forms of professional development, must behave and regard themselves as collaborative counsellors rather than authoritarian supervisors. Admittedly those responsible for induction should be knowledgeable, experienced, resourceful and *trained* for their role, but as induction counsellors they should foster collaborative problem-solving about instructional strategies, interaction with peers and administrative procedures, and not provide 'standard solutions'.

The third belief is that one effective way to learn a great deal about one's job of teaching, including instructional or administrative strategies is to gather data (with the help of a colleague) about what occurs in one's own classes or with one's own administrative strategies, and compare that with what was expected, what others have experienced, what research says would occur and what occurs when some of the antecedent conditions (*e.g.* an instructional or administrative strategy) are altered. These types of comparisons or reflections about one's job are rarely fostered in pre-service education programs, in induction or at other stages during a teacher's career. The references cited above maintain that encouraging teachers to reflect on their own job in the manner outlined has a significant effect on teachers' behaviour, self-concepts, satisfaction with teaching, and sense of worthwhile accomplishment. Of course, teachers must gather data and think about those things that are generally regarded as educationally significant features and they must be given techniques for gathering data about these significant features.

It is suggested that induction could involve a number of personal investigations about one's own job as teacher with collaborative data gathering and reflection on that data as indicated above. Additional details about what might be done are to be found in the four references mentioned at the beginning of this section.

Concluding Comments

Whereas there is no unequivocal evidence to the superiority of one induction provision over another, experience indicates that each practice that has been adopted by education authorities in different countries has a place. It does seem, however, that some of the features and perspectives about induction could be improved. First, induction should not be reserved for beginning teachers but extended to include relieving and part-time teachers, late appointees and experienced teachers taking on new roles. Second, all induction counsellors/tutors should take more account of the creative potential within teachers. Fourth, induction counsellors and induction provisions should foster collaborative problem-solving and fifth, new initiatives in induction should include collaborative data gathering and reflection on significant educational features of one's own teaching job. There is a challenge for the profession to take these new initiatives.

Notes

Note 1. The European reports include those by Broeders (1980), Gabriel (1957), Muller-Fohrbrodt, Clocha and Dann (1978), Phillips (1932), Taylor and Dale (1971), Veenman (1982), and Veenman, Berkelaar and Berkelaar-Tomesen (1983).

Note 2. The North American reports include those by Cruickshank and Broadbent (1968), Corcoran (1981), Dreeben (1970), Hunter (1981), Zeichner and Grant (1981), and Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981).

Note 3. The Australian reports include those by Hogben and Petty (1979), MacArthur (1981), Otto, Gasson and Jordan (1979), Power (1981), Telfer (1981), Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor (1979), and Tisher and Taylor (1982).

Note 4. The New Zealand reports include those by Battersby (1981) and Murdoch (1978).

Note 5. A small number of investigators in the United Kingdom (Bolam 1973; Bradley and Eggleston 1975, 1978), New Zealand (Battersby 1981, 1982; Murdoch 1978) and Australia (Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor 1979) and North America (Zeichner 1979a) have studied the formal induction provisions for beginning teachers. The Australian study appears to be the only one involving a representative national sample of primary and secondary teachers.

Note 6. Reflective teaching was developed by Donald R. Cruickshank and others at the Ohio State University 1978-81. The Reflective Teaching Instructors' Manual and Participants' Guide are published by Phi Delta Kappa.

References

Battersby, D. (1981) *The First Year of Teaching. A Grounded Theory Study.* D.Phil. Thesis, University of Waikato.

Battersby, D. (1982) The Professional Development of Beginning Teachers: Some Recommendations from a New Zealand Study, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 10 (2), 22-31.

Biddle, B.J. (1979) *Role Theory Expectations, Identities and Behaviours,* Academic Press, New York.

Bolam, R. (1973) *Induction programmes for probationary teachers,* A report on an action research project, School of Education, Research Unit, University of Bristol.

Bradley, H.W. and Eggleston, J.F. (eds.) *An Inquiry into the Induction Year,* A research report arising from studies of probationers, School of Education, University of Nottingham.

Bradley, H.W. and Eggleston, J.F. (1978) An induction year experiment, *Educational Research,* 20, 89-98.

Broeders, A. (1980) *Beginnende leerkrachten: werksituatie en arbeids satisfactie,* Doctorallscriptie, Instituut voor Onderwijskunda, K.U., Nijmegen.

Corcoran, E. (1981) Transition Shock: The Beginning Teacher's Paradox, *Journal of Teacher Education,* 32 (3), 19-23.

Cruickshank, D. and Broadbent, F. (1968) *The simulation and analysis of problems of beginning teachers,* US Department of Health Education and Welfare (ERIC ED 24637), Washington, DC.

Dean, J. (1977) Making In-service Effective, *British Journal of In-Service Education,* 4 (1).

Dreeben, R. (1970) *The Nature of Teaching,* Glenview, Scott, Foresman and Co.

Frech, H.W. and Reichwein, R. (1977) *Der vergessene Teil der Lehrerbildung: Institutionelle Bedingungen und inhaltliche Tendernzen im Referendariat der Gymnasiallehrer,* Klett-Cotta, Stuttgart.

Gabriel, J. (1957) *An Analysis of the Emotional Problems of the Teacher in the Classroom,* Angus and Robertson, London.

Hogben, D. and Petty, M.F. (1979) From student to primary school teacher: Attitude, Stability and Change, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 7, 92-8.

Hunter, J.S. (1967) *The Beginning Teacher One Year Later,* US Department of Health Education and Welfare, Washington, DC.

Isaacson, N.S. (1981) *A description of the nature and extent of support systems as perceived by beginning secondary teachers,* Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon.

Lacey, C. (1981) *The Socialisation of Teachers,* Methuen, London.

Lortie, D.C. (1975) *School-Teacher: A Sociological Study,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

MacArthur, J. (1981) *The First Five Years of Teaching,* ERDC Report No. 30, AGPS, Canberra.

McCable, J.J.C. (1979) Some implications of induction for initial teacher training, *British Journal of Teacher Education,* 5, 157-64.

Muller-Fohrbrodt, G., Cloetta, B., and Dann, H.D. (1978) *Der Praxisschock bei junger Lehren,* Klett-Cotta, Stuttgart.

Murdoch, R.P. (1978) *Professional Development: The Induction and Education of Beginning Teachers,* Research Report, Christchurch Teachers' College, New Zealand.

Newbury, J.Mc. (1978) The barrier between beginning and experienced teachers, *Journal of Educational Administration,* 16 (1), 45-56.

Otto, E., Gasson, I. and Jordan, E. (1979) Perceived problems of beginning teachers, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 7 (1/2), 28-33.

Pataniczek, D. and Isaacson, N.S. (1982) The Relationship of Socialization and the Concerns of Beginning Secondary Teachers, *Journal of Teacher Education,* 32 (3), 15-17.

Phillips, M. (1932) Some problems of adjustment in the early years of a teacher's life, *British Journal of Educational Psychology,* 2, 237-56.

Power, P.G. (1981) Aspects of the Transition from Education Student to Beginning Teacher, *Australian Journal of Education,* 25, 288-96.

Queensland In-Service Education (Secondary) Committee (1981) *Teacher Induction Program — Secondary,* Education Department, Brisbane.

Smyth, W.J. (1983) Clinical supervision: shared frameworks of meaning about teaching, *Educational Magazine,* 2, 2-5.

Smyth, W.J. and Strachan, J.C. (1981) Helping teachers through clinical supervision, *The practising administrator,* 3 (1), 12-13.

Stammers, P. (1979) Whose INSET is it? *British Journal of In-Service Education,* 6 (1), 5-9.

Taylor, K. and Dale, J.R. (1971) *A Survey of Teachers in Their First Year of Service,* School of Education, University of Bristol.

Telfer, R. (1981) Some Variables Associated with Teaching Problems, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 9 (2), 13-21.

Thurstans, I. (1979) Teacher-Tutor Training: A Summary of the Development of Training Programmes for Teacher-Tutors in the Induction Processes in the U.K., in Tisher, R.P. (ed.) *More Effective Induction in Australia: New Directions,* Faculty of Education, Monash University. (A report of a national invitational conference.)

Tisher, R.P. (1980) The induction of beginning teachers, in Hoyle, E. and Megarry, J. (eds.) *World Yearbook of Education, 1980. Professional Development of Teachers,* Kegan Paul, London.

Tisher, R.P. (1983) Personal initiatives for professional development, *The secondary administrator,* 1 (3), 3-5.

Tisher, R.P., Fyfield, J.A. and Taylor, S.M. (1979) *Beginning to Teach.* Volume 2 ERDC Report No. 20, AGPS, Canberra.

Tisher, R.P. and Taylor, S.M. (1982) New teachers' job satisfactions, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 10 (1), 9-16.

Veenman, S. (1982) Problemen van beginnende leraren: uitkomsten van een literatuurecherche, *Pedagogische Studien,* 59, 458-570.

Veenman, S., Berkelaar-Tomesen, J. (1983) Problemen can beginnende leraren in het basisonderwijs: een exploratief beschrijvend onderzoek, *Pedagogische Studien,* 60, 28-37.

Young, W.H. (1979) The Professional Tutor: An Innovation in Initial Training, Induction and In-Service Education for Teachers, in Tisher, R.P. (ed.) *More Effective Induction in Australia: New Directions,* Faculty of Education, Monash University. (A report of a national invitational conference.)

Zeichner, K.M. (1979a) Teacher Induction Practices in the United States and Great Britain, a paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (April), San Francisco.

Zeichner, K.M. (1979b) The dialectics of teacher socialization, a paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators (February), Orlando.

Zeichner, K.M. and Grant, C. (1981) Biography and social structure in the socialization of student teachers: a re-examining of the pupil control ideologies of student teachers, *Journal of Education for Teaching,* 1, 298-314.

Zeichner, K.M. and Tabachnick, B.R. (1981) Are the Effects of University Teacher Education 'Washed out' by School Experience? *Journal of Teacher Education,* 32 (3), 7-11.

THE PROFESSIONAL SOCIALISATION OF SCHOOL TEACHERS

Don Anderson

The socialisation of teachers, and of other professionals, begins before training starts. In the case of teaching, experiences at school are specially important since many future teachers identify with their own school teachers and learn habits and attitudes which will later characterise their own practice. Socialisation during training appears to be less influential than in other professions; evidence indicates that trainees are closer to practising teachers in attitudes to discipline, etc. at the beginning of the courses than they are at the end. After a few years of practice there appears to be a return to something like the attitudes and beliefs held before training commenced. Students in concurrent courses are more likely to acquire traditional orientations than students in a secondary end-on course organisation.

Generally school teachers represent a broader cross-section of the community than other professionals, and they are better educated; nevertheless, there are calls for even better educated teachers. The paper concludes with a discussion of a central dilemma for all professional education. It is this: the more trainees are confined to a total institution (to use Goffman's term) the greater will be their commitment to the profession and to its traditional practices; the more they are trained in a multi-purpose educational environment, the more catholic and critical will be their views. The paper concludes with some questions about the career structure of teaching.

Introduction

Associated with most occupations are personality stereotypes of practitioners:

- the solicitor who is formal in demeanour and suspicious by temperament; it is his/her task to ask not what is right or good about a proposal but what is wrong with it, where the catch is. And work habits spill over into everyday customs so that it is said that lawyers are the only people invariably found to be carrying umbrellas on a sunny day;
- the somewhat pompous, superficially friendly and dogmatic doctor, made that way by a succession of patients, each of them anxious for an unequivocal diagnosis which will label their malady. An expression of genuine uncertainty by the doctor might be honest but it is not wanted by the patients who, until recently at least, accorded considerable deference to these modern medicine-men, whose wisdom encompasses knowledge of life and death;
- the public-spirited but conservative civil engineer who relates to things more readily than to people, and who would like society to 'stay still' so that the engineer can get on with improving the physical environment: bridging it, damming it or draining it;
- the avuncular and didactive teacher who daily has to maintain order amongst a jumble of fractious children.

By their nature stereotypes distort, reducing complex and varied reality to simple and sometimes prejudiced images. Nevertheless there are links between occupation and character and they are used, for example, by authors like Conrad as a means of delineating personality. And in everyday interpersonal commerce we use occupation as a short-cut to a certain familiarity. When two strangers are thrown together in a railway carriage they will almost invariably start the getting-to-know-you process with observations about the weather; this will be followed quickly by 'what do you do?' or, if the idea is to deflate pomposity, 'what do you do for a crust?' 'What do you do' could be answered a dozen ways — 'I live in Bankstown', 'I enjoy tennis', 'I watch television every night', 'I seek indulgence', 'I spend all the time I can with my family' - but in our culture the question is universally interpreted as referring to work, vocation, job or occupation. And the answer conveys a great deal, providing hints about the respondent's social class, likely income, education, political preference, values, residential region and social beliefs. Such information facilitates conversation.

In industrialised society it is work, perhaps more than any other single institution, which provides personal satisfaction, determines social position, is a source of friendships, and defines personal identity. There is some factual basis for unflattering stereotypes but they are, of course, neither fully accurate nor complete. For example, the public also accords to doctors and teachers a high degree of trust; they are also associated with a certain amount of idealism and are accorded respect. Perhaps Goldsmith's tribute to the village teacher 'And still they gaz'd, and still the wonder grew, That one small head could carry all he knew' is less opposite in an era of mass education just as the Dr. Finlay (of casebook fame) image has faded with mass medical services.

The career choice which is made by young people is shaped by the position of their family in the social structure, as well as by temperament. Doctors and lawyers come predominantly from the top fifth of the social order (based on the sociologists' holy trinity of education, wealth and occupational prestige) and are likely to have entered university via the more prestigious private schools. Apprentices, on the other hand, are mainly from the middle and lower social groups, are 90 per cent male, and have attended public schools. Recruits to engineering are also mainly men but from the upper reaches of the social scale and, in recent years, increasingly from private schools. Teachers originate from a more representative and wider span of the social spectrum but they are still on average well above the median. The democratisation of higher education which occurred during the 1960s and early 1970s was due, more than anything else, to the massive recruitment of teachers by state education departments which, desperate to find staff for the burgeoning schools, used studentships which paid fees and a handsome allowance in order to recruit trainees. By these means thousands of young people were attracted into higher education from groups formerly under-represented: country dwellers, lower SES (socio-economic status) and females.

In more recent times, with the decline in demand for teachers, and the diminution of the value of financial aid for students, there has been something of a social regression in the make-up of higher education. Furthermore, with increased retention through secondary school, and limited places in universities and colleges, entry standards have risen as the demand for places has become very competitive, especially for medicine and law. This has however, not extended to education where teacher trainees remain of average scholastic attainment and of average social background. A decade or more ago women who entered teaching were of above average attainment and social class; now many of their contemporary counterparts seek careers previously dominated by men.

How do certain temperaments become associated with occupations? Is it, as we have implied, that the task moulds the person, like a Procrustean bed which, as Willard Waller (1932) said in relation to teachers, fits the person to the task of lopping off superfluous members and stretching others. Or is it a matter of self-selection and a matching process whereby young people, in the business of making a career decision, match their self-image with the image they have of occupations, choosing unconsciously perhaps, those in which they will feel most comfortable.

These two explanations of career choice have been explored a good deal in social psychology. The first with the aid of role theory which sees individuals being socialised by experiences during training or at work for their occupational roles. A role is a set of behaviours, beliefs and dispositions which are characteristics of individuals in particular context; and socialisation is the process whereby changes are induced in persons by agencies in the environment facilitating participation in a sub-culture or a social system (Biddle, 1979). Generally occupational socialisation is thought to occur mainly in the first years of work; we shall see however that there is a good deal of recent evidence indicating that socialisation also takes place during training, or even before.

The second approach to explaining career choice is trait theory. It explores the extent to which young people unconsciously match their personality with perceptions of occupations. Individuals either self-select or are guided to careers where the tasks are felt to be congruent with their personality needs. Trait, as distinct from role, is behaviour presumed to be characteristic of a person regardless of context. Traits are thus deeply embedded in the personality and have their origin either in biological inheritance, or in early childhood experiences which are subsequently repressed and are beyond recall by ordinary memory.

These two theoretical viewpoints, like most theories, have profound practical implications. The vocational guidance movement, for example, which emerged as advanced industrial society spawned complex occupational roles, is predicated on the assumptions: (1) that there are abiding differences of personality and of ability between individuals; (2) that these differences can be measured; (3) that individuals and jobs can be matched to the mutual benefit of the worker and employer. The operation of the school psychology and guidance systems in Victoria and New South Wales in the 1950s and 1960s (and possibly more recently), illustrate these contrasting approaches. In New South Wales, where practice was influenced by the biologically determinist University of Sydney Psychology Department, children were tested, assessed and allocated to roles deemed to be appropriate - in school or the labour force. In Victoria, the University of Melbourne Psychology Department was strongly environmentally determinist and this perspective influenced the Psychology and Guidance Branch of the Education Department which treated the situation rather than the child.

In this paper we will be focusing on socialisation as a process in the development of teachers. This does not mean that there are not more fundamental dispositions which influence what teachers do; nor does it rule out the ethnomethodological perspective that individuals make choices and determine their own situation rather than the reverse. It is illustrative of the extent to which theories can blinker intelligence and common sense that it is necessary to remind ourselves that all individuals are capable of making choices, that these choices are predictable only in a statistical sense, and that to an extent it is people who mould situations. The chief disease of doctrinaire social science is 'nothing buttery'; that human behaviour is 'nothing but' the expression of biology, etc.

Of the three stages when socialisation can occur - before training commences, during training, and on-the-job-pretraining - socialisation is almost always anticipatory. Mental role-playing occurs as a young person who has made a career decision imagines himself or herself in the role, and assumes some of the habits of the job. Socialisation during training is much closer to the real thing; recruits to engineering, medicine, law or teaching, etc. have committed themselves, with varying degrees of intensity, to a career and are thus highly receptive to socialising influences or agencies which, as we shall see, are plentiful in professional schools and faculties. Socialisation on the job completes the process of turning the recruit into a good working member of the occupational culture. The occupational task shapes personality, and this adaptation is reinforced by other persons in the same role. Colleagues can be supportive, they also exert considerable pressure on newcomers to conform to the traditional role. In the case of teachers, on-the-job socialisation can be particularly potent.

In exploring these three stages we will refer to some of the considerable Australian literature on the subject of teacher socialisation. Especial use will be made of the national Professions in Australia project, a longitudinal study which commenced in the mid-1960s with students who were then commencing university courses with the intention of qualifying for practice as engineers, lawyers, medical doctors or secondary teachers (Anderson *et al.*, 1983). These recruits were followed through their courses to graduation or until they dropped out. Further follow-up occurred in 1978, 1982, 1983 and 1984. All told six universities were represented in the studies. Apart from one special instance the teachers in the sample were in 'end-on' courses where a 3-year degree (usually arts or science) preceded a diploma of education. The exception was a special 4-year concurrent course of education and science studies for students who would become science teachers. Later reference will be made of the effect of the different experiences of students in this concurrent course compared with those in end-on courses.

Pre-Training and Anticipatory Socialisation

The age at which young people make a career decision seems to influence their subsequent occupational commitment; the earlier the stronger (Carpenter and Foster, 1979). Not unnaturally, those who have decided earlier are going to be more receptive to agencies which influence the development of traditional role characteristics.

In the Professions in Australia project half of those who entered medical or teacher training had decided on their career by the age of 16; in engineering and law only one-third had decided so early. Among the medical students it was a family influence which had set this early career direction; among the teachers it was their own school teachers, especially in the case of girls. Furthermore, it has been shown in numerous studies that school teachers are particularly influential role models for their own pupils. This is perhaps not unexpected, teaching being the only occupation (apart from home duties) which is so closely observed by children for several hours of every day. The influence of teachers as agents of pre-training socialisation is conservative in that existing classroom practices are endorsed and values, perhaps no longer appropriate, are internalised. So strong is this early influence that Petty and Hogben (1980), who studied six groups of teacher and non-teacher students in Australia, concluded that teacher socialisation is largely completed by the time training begins. Lortie (1975) reached a similar conclusion after studies in USA, observing that:

> teachers retain a definition of schooling and teaching from their own school days (which is) essentially practical and task-oriented . . . [and] . . . that education students having been socialised for teaching by their experiences as pupils believe they know teaching and are more concerned with learning practical skills than theory which may bear upon those skills.

Similar conclusions were reached by Shipman (1967) and Hargreaves (1975) following their studies in the United Kingdom.

In contrast to the significant number of teachers who decided early on their career, and whose commitment is strong, is another group who decided for teaching quite late and whose commitment to the profession is weak. Entry to teaching for many of the latter group of young people was almost by default: having done well enough at school, and having reached the point of leaving for work or for further training, and since, in the words of one representative, 'nothing else appealed at the time, I chose teaching'. Sometimes the availability of a grant (in the 1960s and 1970s education department studentships were as valuable as any available) was the most important consideration; and in a few cases there was an intention to leave teaching at the earliest possible opportunity. Entering the profession of teaching by default was more common among secondary than primary trainees, men than women, urban than rural, and among trainees who had been to Catholic schools than others (McArthur, 1981; Walker, 1967; Carpenter and Foster, 1978). The proportion who were committed to classroom teaching in the Professions in Australia study was similar at the outset to that in a contemporary English sample - just under 50 per cent - but this had declined by 4th year (see Table 1).

Table 1. Expected 'Life's Work' of Student-Teachers

	Australia		England	
	Start of 1st year n = 1089	End of 1st year n = 974	Fourth year n = 537	Second year n = 3237
Classroom teaching	49	46	41	49
Teacher education	4	3	6	6
Research	7	10	8	6
Administration	7	5	5	4
Planning	1	1	2	1
Not decided	26	26	24	26
Will not be teaching	100	100	100	100

Source: Professions in Australia project and London Institute of Education. See Anderson (1974).

Choice by default was also frequent among the law students in the Professions in Australia study (it was even more frequent among the English student-teachers). There were, however, other differences of a more positive nature. Compared with engineering, law and medicine entrants to secondary teaching in the 1960s were less moved by considerations extrinsic to practice such as social prestige, financial rewards or personal security. Expectations of future income by teacher trainees were modest compared with the other professions, a fact not unrelated to the sex and social class origins of teachers. Notable among the images which had attracted the teacher trainees were community service and an interest in working with people (Anderson, 1974).

It bears repeating, however, that among the highly committed recruits to education, evidence from three countries shows that their own teachers had been potent role models. This fact is crucial to understanding the process of becoming a teacher. If the beliefs and dispositions of teachers are formed so early, does subsequent training in any way modify these, perhaps replacing those traditional images which were learnt when they were pupils with alternative perspectives? It is to these questions that we now turn.

The Effect of Teacher Training

The effects of anticipatory socialisation and teacher influence are not 'washed-out' during training or in the first years of teaching according to Carpenter *et al.* (1982). These authors, however, do not go as far as Petty and Hogben or Lortie who have concluded that any socialising effects of training are quite superficial. Indeed, according to Lortie student teachers resist re-socialisation during training; it is the conservative attitudes to teaching which endure, attitudes which were learned from their own teachers who were powerful role models. He believes that during training recruits to teaching are disposed to those aspects of the courses which are congruent with the models and attitudes they have brought with them from their own schooling. Contrary beliefs and dispositions from professional training become less firmly rooted. Subsequently attitudes internalised earlier and perhaps suppressed during training, are triggered when recruits themselves start teaching.

The Professions in Australia project produced clear support for professional socialisation during training in the case of engineering, law and medicine; but in the case of teachers the evidence is more equivocal. The study hypothesised that no socialising agencies influence student development during the years of their courses. One is the official or approved university culture which, in addition to imparting knowledge and skills, sets out to inculcate certain attitudes to knowledge, particularly approaches to inquiry and, according to some authorities, liberal values on a variety of social issues (Anderson and Western, 1967). The second socialising agent is the culture of the profession for which students are preparing and which exercises its influence through curriculum, associations with staff, journals, meetings and family connections. As undergraduate training proceeds, there is an increasing specialisation of curriculum; there is also a concentration of social life so that before long students mix almost exclusively with other individuals having similar career destinies. Thus the peer group reinforce the acquisition of traditional beliefs and dispositions.

The study reached the interesting conclusion that dual socialisation occurs in most faculty groups. All students acquired values which are traditionally associated with the university experience; they became more liberal on political, social and economic issues; less dogmatic in their attitudes to knowledge; less pragmatic in problem-solving; less cynical and more interested in intellectual pursuits and high culture. There were differences between faculties and, while all changed in the same direction, the relative differences remained. Thus, for example, the engineering students stayed the most dogmatic, teachers the most disposed to intellectual interests, while the law and medical students remained the most politically conservative. (The latter is, of course, consistent with the social background of the students in those faculties).

At the same time as the students were acquiring these general values, those in engineering, law and medicine experienced professional socialisation, developing beliefs and dispositions characteristic of the culture of the profession for which they were preparing. Thus in medicine students' initial idealism declined and was replaced by a view that the interests of the practitioner and of the profession had to be given greater weight in any conflict of client or public interest. This found expression in quite strongly-held views by senior students in favour of fee for service, minimum government regulation and professional solidarity against criticism. Law and engineering students similarly came to accept their respective professional perspectives on community issues, believing for instance that, in disputes with clients, and in defining the public interest, the final arbiter should be the profession itself.

Dual socialisation by university and by profession appears to have taken these students in contradictory directions: the university experience towards a more critical and less self-centred perspective on society, the professional influence to a strongly self-interested position. Although there is no way of testing the relative strengths of two such disparate influences it was very clear that the students' primary reference group became their profession, and indeed, by the end of their training, the majority had come to believe that professional education would be better were it conducted in a specialised professional institute rather than a multi-purpose university. The strength of both the university and the profession-centred attitudes which students developed, as they progressed through their training, appears not to have been connected with social origins. There was no evidence, for example, that students from working class backgrounds intended, any more than other students, to use their skills to help more disadvantaged sections of society. This does not mean that such a motive does not exist, but simply that this study found no evidence for it. Group identification is likely to be stronger where the group is more socially coherent as is the case of Aboriginals, or other ethnic sub-cultures.

Teachers were different. Whereas university socialisation occurs in a similar fashion to that for engineering, law and medicine, there was little evidence of professional socialisation in the case of student teachers, all of whom were destined for secondary schools. This may be accounted for by the lesser amount of specifically professional training which they received in their first two or three years of teacher education, compared with the professional content in other faculties. Furthermore, the professional culture of teaching is less well defined than in other professions: indeed, there are conflicting views about the nature and purposes of teaching which are not paralleled in engineering, law or medicine. There was some evidence that the socialisation of the teacher trainees was actually counter-productive from the perspective of practices which are common in schools. Whereas, for example, practising teachers approve a somewhat authoritarian demeanour, student teachers, who came into training with initial attitudes not dissimilar from those of practising teachers, had moved by final year to more liberal and child-centred positions.

A direct comparison of practising teachers with student teachers is possible by using the Australian data from the international study by Adams *et al.* (1970), some questions from which were included in the Professions in Australia survey. The following is a list of practices which both practising teachers and beginning student teachers endorsed more or less equally, but which the student teachers came to reject by the end of their training:

- use of formal or respectful titles by pupils
- corporal punishment for boys
- insistence on respect from pupils
- regular and ample homework
- ability grouping
- preparation of pupils for jobs
- emphasising pupils' obligations to society
- religious education.

These were students of the late 1960s, many of whom had completed their degrees before the peak of student unrest which was associated with conscription, Vietnam and anti-establishment ideologies. Later we shall see something of the same group, or at least of the survivors who are teachers in the late 1980s. In the meantime the interpretations of the findings of that study made in the 1960s is of interest:

> It was concluded that on the face of it, there does seem to be a real generation gap represented in these differences. To suggest that these student-teachers hold the values of the counter-culture would be to exaggerate beyond credulity. There is virtually nothing in their behaviour which indicates an interest in the psychology of alienation, oriental mysticism, psychedelic drugs, community living. Such a culture embraces only a small minority of the young. Nevertheless, there are influences which extend to even the most socially conservative of students, a category which includes student-teachers. We have already seen evidence that they tend to reject materialism and social prestige as values. On the other hand, there is an emphasis on increasing self-awareness and an interest in better understanding of others. In the exact comparison with practising teachers, the student-teachers reject ideas which have been central to traditional schooling: for them, schooling is not mainly a preparation for jobs, it is not to produce people who will conform to society, it is not to stress obligations to the existing order and it is not to teach religion. These differences (between 4th year students and practising teachers) are so large, and reflect the position of so many students, that it makes sense to speak of a generation gap. We are speaking of students who are among the most socially conservative in the university. They are not flamboyant adolescent rebels whose iconoclastic displays will later be replaced by solid middle-class conservatism. As with members of the counter-culture, it is easier to discover what these students reject than it is to discern what their objectives are. At this stage their aims appear, somewhat hazily, as a respect for the individual student and his right to be different. When they enter

> traditional schooling, where the maintenance of order is a dominating concern, those of the group who remain in teaching will probably become more traditional in their schoolroom practices as has been predicted by our school-teacher informants (Anderson, 1974).

The same study compared the socialisation of two groups of students training to be science teachers: one in a 4-year end-on course, the other in a 4-year concurrent course. In both of these courses the curriculum was similar but in the concurrent course, professional education studies commenced early whereas the end-on course was structured on the traditional 3-year BSc. followed by a one-year Dip.Ed. model. The chief socialising agents operating on the students in these courses were the curriculum, the teaching staff, and fellow students. Those in the end-on course were exposed to education studies and practice teaching only in their final year; their lecturers, during the first three years, were regular staff in the science faculty; they had little association with educationists; and socially they mixed with a variety of students from diverse courses in the university. The concurrent students, on the other hand, were introduced to education studies early in their course, and increasingly confined their socialising to fellow education students.

The differences in outcomes were quite dramatic. After four years it was found that:

- with respect to intention to continue teaching: whereas this was initially similar for both groups the committed proportion among the concurrent students steadily increased whereas among the end-on students it steadily declined over the years of training;
- on the perceived prestige of school teachers: while this was not ranked high in either group, the perceptions among the end-on students of the prestige of school teaching declined, whereas the proportion among concurrent who saw school teaching as relatively prestigious, remained fairly constant;
- on the solidarity of teachers against pupils: more of the concurrent students tended toward protective attitudes;
- on engaging in public debate and criticism of government policy: concurrent students became much more cautious;
- on the freedom of teachers to devise their own syllabuses and examinations: the concurrent students were more supportive of teacher freedom;
- on the importance of strict discipline: the concurrent students remained more traditional;
- on child-centred education: more concurrent students became progressive;
- on emphasis given to factual learning and to training students for jobs: concurrent students became less concerned with teaching of facts and with job training.

It was concluded that the students in concurrent courses, unlike the end-on students who comprised the majority of student teachers in the study, came to resemble practising teachers in their beliefs and dispositions. It is difficult to see how the outcomes can be explained simply as the effect of a concurrent organisation versus an end-on organisation. Reference has to be made also to the particular experiences students have during training. In the present instance concurrent students had a close association with teachers' college staff throughout their courses. These staff members were highly qualified professional science teachers, all of whom had been first-rate school teachers. The effect on the students of this experience seems to have been to increase commitment to teaching and to reinforce a traditional view of school teaching, one which had been learnt during their own school days. During their second and third years the concurrent students took education subjects taught by university staff. This seems to have induced child-centred attitudes and reduced some of the traditional beliefs at this stage. In fourth year, however, when in practice teaching, the students are again associated with more tradition-oriented staff, and there is evidence of a return to initial attitudes.

Friendships comprised another source of influence which caused the two groups to develop different attitudes to teaching. Those who were in end-on courses expanded their range of acquaintances while those in concurrent courses contracted theirs to the in-group of fellow teacher trainees. Attitudes learned by the concurrent students from school or through association with teachers' college staff in first year are likely to have been reinforced and sustained by friendships with like-minded students. On the other hand, the reduction in commitment to teaching by the end-on students could be associated with friendships developed in the wider university environment.

The end-on students spent their first three years completing a science degree. They took no education subjects during this period and were not taught by teachers' college staff. In all important respects they were ordinary university science students and in all classes they were indistinguishable from students not intending to be teachers. One effect of these three years of pure science study seems to have been to induce a reverence for factual knowledge and a belief in vocational education. Only in fourth year was there a reversal of the earlier trend to a belief in the importance of education for jobs. A second trend was for these students to adopt a less conformist position with respect to teachers engaging in public controversy or criticising government. Once again this is probably due to the end-on students mixing more with other non-teaching university students and less with teaching college staff than the concurrent students.

These results and those of Coulter (1973) and McArthur (1981) suggest that the debate over end-on versus concurrent courses cannot be conducted satisfactorily without taking into account the social experiences which students have – with staff and with fellow students.

Other studies bear witness to the importance of practice teaching in raising the commitment of students to teaching as a career and to reinforcing satisfaction with the decision that they have made to become school teachers. Coulter and Elsworth (1973) also found that, after practice teaching, trainees, especially the men, were less child-centred in their attitudes and showed less warmth to students. Harman (1981), found what he termed some 'undesirable' attitude change occurring during practice teaching. He noted, moreover, that student teacher relationships became more formal and that the classroom atmosphere tended towards more traditional discipline being approved. He also noted a difference between theory and practice in that student teachers

> found that the application of pedagogical suggestions (from college) did not always produce desirable results in actual teaching experience . . . that there is a difference between an attitude in an academic situation and one acquired in a practical session; and that method units prior to student teaching do not adequately prepare students for the reality of pupil-teacher relationships in the classroom.

Socialisation on the Job

Professional training generally increases the commitment of those who survive. This is especially the case in engineering, law and medicine and with concurrent courses for teachers. Many of those grossly unsuited will have dropped out before training is completed. As we have seen, training can also socialise recruits for conventional roles in the professional culture although, in the case of school teaching, students may be exposed to ideologies which are antithetical to the work roles which they will subsequently enter.

Many research studies in Australia point to a rapid adaptation to the teaching role by new entrants. It is generally agreed that the 'reality' of classrooms causes the rapid abandonment of those progressive ideas which are not in tune with dominant practice. Furthermore, some studies use the term 'reality shock' to capture what is believed to be the traumatic experiences of many beginning teachers (McArthur, 1981; Petty and Hogben, 1980; Walker, 1967). Others, like Power (1981), observe the transition from training to teaching to be less traumatic. Clearly and not unnaturally there is a connection between the extent to which practice teaching during training is realistic and the ease with which teachers enter the teaching role. Some studies report that teachers devise conforming strategies which enable them to perform up to the expectations of their supervisors while disguising their real beliefs and dispositions. Battersby and Koh (1980) referred to this as 'strategic compliance to situational demands . . . an individual complies but has reservations about what he does'. Such strategies include putting on a front, not saying what you really think and doing favours for other teachers in powerful positions. Other studies refer to coping strategies.

There is a sense in which all occupations, professions particularly, constrain and perhaps even stunt personal and intellectual development. We referred earlier to the personality types associated with particular professions; these are an outward and visible expression of the narrowing effect that occupation can have on temperament.

In the case of teachers the very nature of their work in the classroom – making students behave, drilling them in rote learning, answering questions quickly and superficially – tends to dull creative powers. Willard Waller (1932) has spoken of teachers tending to lose the learners' attitude because a didactic disposition dulls curiosity. He quotes Burnham: 'With this mental set, teachers cannot learn because they are so eager to teach; and nothing perhaps wearies them so much as to hear again what they think they already know'.

One might expect loss of sensitivities and a dulling of intellectual curiosity among other professions whose tasks involve repetition of the same advice to a succession of clients, doctors and lawyers for example. Unfortunately the work practices of these have never been studied to the extent that teachers have. Nor do doctors and lawyers, or most other professions for that matter, undertake courses of professional development to anything like the extent which is now common in teaching.

Not all teachers survive by conforming to conventional roles. Some attempt to change what has become traditional; others find sub-roles where they feel more comfortable. Broadly there are four possibilities:

- conforming to the role
- changing the situation
- seeking more compatible roles within the education system
- leaving teaching.

The late 1960s and early 1970s was one of those rare periods when major structural innovations were possible in schools and education systems. It was the time of alternative schools, it was the time of school-based assessment in Queensland, of secondary colleges in the ACT, of devolution of authority in South Australia and of major curriculum reforms in Victoria. At the federal level there was the Schools Commission, the Innovations Program, the Curriculum Development Centre and the Education Research and Development Committee. Few of these innovations would get off the ground today, certainly not the alternative schools, or school-based assessment. Alternative schools were largely a teacher-creation; teachers also participated in the numerous other structures for change. These opportunities kept a number of the more radical education reformers within the teaching profession; they also provided opportunities for those whose commitment to classroom teaching was low.

A typology based on the two dimensions of commitment to teaching and of orientation to reform was used by the Professions in Australia project as a means of exploring the career development of teachers. As with most typologies a good deal of the diversity and complexity of the real situation is missed out. Also, of course, there will be some whose commitment changes, and some who are traditional in particular things, and radical in others. Nonetheless, the emerging teachers did differ among themselves in both commitment and, in a consistent way, with respect to many things which should be changed (Table 2).

Table 2. A Typology of Student-Teachers

	Orientation to educational practice	
	Traditional	*Radical*
Committed	1	2
Uncommitted	3	4

Committed-Traditional

This group is the largest amongst those who graduated and became teachers; it is one whose socialisation can be most closely compared with those of engineering, law and medicine. They are the professionals who were attracted by the idea of classroom teaching and saw it as their life's work.

The 'committed-traditional' may have had a parent who was a teacher, and was probably influenced towards teaching because of admiration for a particular teacher at school. Many made their career decisions at a relatively young age. They were inclined to be politically and socially conservative (and still are) and above average on dogmatism (although not to the extent of the engineers).

The conception of schooling is one in which the maintenance of good order and discipline is essential. The role of the pupil is seen as being submissive to the authority of the teacher and school. With older pupils relations may be a benevolent paternalism, but it is still basically one of dominance. The committed-traditionals place considerable importance on the autonomy of the teacher in relation to those things which would threaten classroom security. Parents also must be kept in their place, which means meeting them on specially arranged occasions rather than informally. On the other hand, the teacher in this category accepts the authority of the education department and has no strong desire to innovate in things like curriculum or school organisation. The committed-traditionals are highly committed, evince considerable job satisfaction and remain in the profession.

Committed-Radical

The exemplar of this type is often found in the community or progressive school: satisfaction comes from working with children but not with the custodial aspects of the traditional role. The group includes some who resign from teaching because of what they regard as 'authoritarian direction' by the education authorities, or distaste for the traditional role of a successful classroom teacher. Others escape to administrative positions early in their careers. They find it easy to establish informal social relations with parents and senior pupils. Student-teachers in this category are critical of many existing practices and responsive to new approaches. A few have chosen teaching because they want to improve things, but most have come to their radical positions during training. Of all four types these have been most responsive to the university environment (as distinct from the teacher-training environment) and have changed most. Among the committed radicals are the innovators and those who adapt most readily to innovation, for example, to team-teaching, non-graded schools, open classrooms and the use of teacher-aides.

Uncommitted-Traditional

In this group are those who, after leaving school, preferred to go into higher education rather than start work, but who had no strong preference for any one course. Their motivation is rather negative; classroom teaching seemed not too unattractive an occupation. They may spend a few years in teaching and then move into something else because the satisfaction of classroom teaching does not compensate them for its difficulties. They have no interest in changing the system. If they do stay in education it will perhaps be in administration. Work as a vocational guidance or careers officer, however, is appealing to them but not the non-directive approach.

A particular sub-group of uncommitted-traditional comprises some women who envisage raising a family at some stage. Teaching is an appealing occupation because leave can be readily arranged with hours and holidays coinciding with those of school-age children. Blanche Geer's (1966) paper on occupational commitment and the teaching profession contains a detailed account of this phenomenon.

Uncommitted-Radical

Although their reason for entering a course leading to teaching may be much the same as the uncommitted-traditional, those members of this type who stay in education will seek opportunities to reform the system. They will be critical of orthodoxy and inclined to engage in public controversy on matters of educational policy. Those who find careers in education will probably end up in social research or in policy-making. For them education is a means to social change, for example, as a means of equalising social inequalities. The uncommitted-radical is a high scorer on the scale of political liberalism. The paradigm might be the de-schooler.

Fourteen years after this sample of secondary trainees embarked on their studies almost half had been lost to the teaching profession. More than one-quarter dropped out during training, 12 per cent left teaching within four years of graduation and another 12 per cent resigned subsequently. The survivors were more from the 'committed-traditional' than the others, but differences were not all that great except in the case of the 'uncommitted-radicals'. Furthermore, the evidence from the study by no means supports the notion that progressive attitudes acquired during training are subsequently 'washed-out' by the exigencies of classroom teaching. For example, at different stages of their university studies students replied to a number of questions about the emphases which they believed that schools should place on pupil deference and socialising them for roles in society and the workforce. As may be seen in Figure 1 there was, during training, a sharp decline in support for encouraging pupil deference, for ability grouping and for socialising students for occupational roles. At the same time support strengthened for more participatory practices. After a decade of teaching most of these attitudes had reversed somewhat, but not to the level of support for traditional practices which students displayed early in their training.

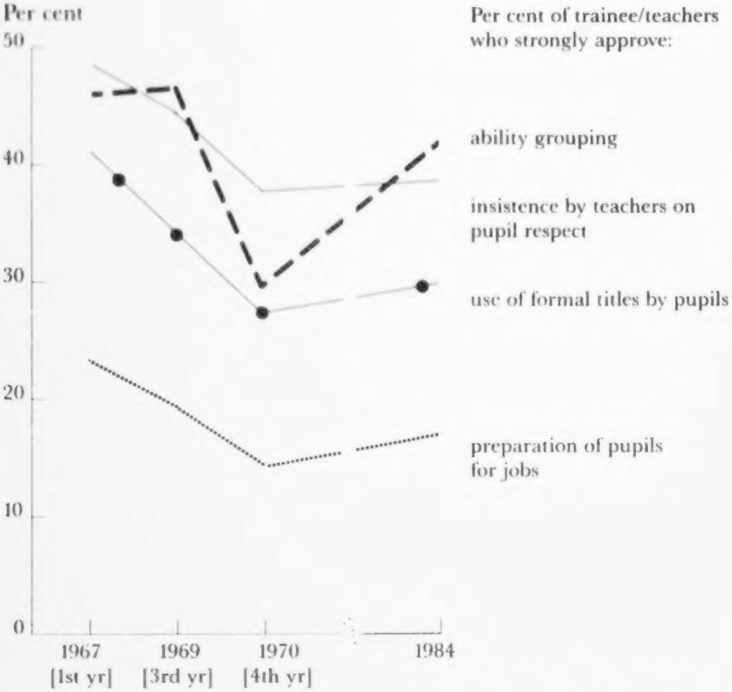


Figure 1. Source: Professions in Australia longitudinal study.

The values of professions, or indeed of any workers, are also influenced by experiences outside their workplace, particularly by friendships and by experiences with other jobs. We have seen how mixing with non-teachers can produce a different outlook in student-teachers compared with those whose training experiences are more closed. The restrictive life experiences of teachers generally has often been remarked upon, and was alluded to at the start of this paper – that they proceed directly from school to teacher training and from teacher training to school, with little or no other vocational activity. The criticism has become less valid following the recent trend to greater recruitment of older persons who have done other things between their own schooling and becoming school teachers. Indeed there is far more variation among the life experiences of teachers than there is in some other professions, doctors for example. In one respect, however, teachers tend to reproduce the sub-culture from which they came; this is the tendency for graduates to return to the same type of school – public, Catholic or other private in which they received their own schooling. While this is understandable, and of course is by no means universal, it does, to the extent that it occurs, detract from the diversity of values and culture represented in schools.

Conclusions: Some Implications for Policy and Practice

Research findings can illuminate and inform policy questions, but not answer them. Decisions concerning the recruitment, training, curriculum and career structures for school teachers are made primarily as a result of influence from interested groups – teacher organisations, universities and colleges, government. Many questions are ultimately value preferences. For example, decisions about the organisation of training are influenced by whether the decision-makers have a traditional or radical orientation in teacher education, conservative or progressive social preferences or tend to a general or vocational emphasis in curriculum. Use of research findings will, nevertheless, improve the quality of decision-making by illuminating, for example, the connections of particular outcomes with social background, with methods of recruitment, and with forms of training.

This review has pointed to a central dilemma for all professional education, but especially for teacher education. It is this: the more trainees are confined to a total institution (to use Goffman's term) the greater will be their commitment to the profession and to its traditional practices; the more they are trained in a multi-purpose educational environment the more catholic and critical will be their views. To illustrate: the Australian Department of Defence and the armed services has constructed a total institution called the Australian Defence Force Academy in order to provide university level education for officer trainees.* The decision to have a separate military academy was taken despite the offer of facilities in a nearby university; the Academy even has its own multi-million dollar hospital, despite readily available beds in community hospitals. The reason for this decision is, of course, that a university environment is not conducive to the uncritical acceptance of ideology, particularly a military ideology.

Something of the same thing occurs in professional training when it is conducted in a single purpose institution. Under these conditions commitment becomes stronger, students are less likely to drop out, and they are more likely to embrace traditional values and practices. The evidence from single-purpose teachers' colleges bears this out. And on balance students seem to prefer their courses to be more practically oriented than is common; they also favour training located in a single-purpose institute rather than in a multi-purpose university.

The challenge for teacher education is to foster commitment to school teaching and to prepare trainees for the reality of classroom practice, but at the same time to provide them with a broad general education including the capacity to be critical and self-critical, and a familiarity with diverse viewpoints and experiences.

Providing for teacher education in single or multi-purpose institutions is but one aspect of the dilemma. Another closely related one is end-on versus concurrent education. End-on courses are more likely to produce graduates who are in general better educated, but the price seems to be weaker professional orientation. Most students enter higher education with a strong vocational perspective in their studies; most would prefer even more practical 'hands-on' experience than they get. This applies in all fields, not just teacher education. Indeed, despite the strictures of Willard Waller, teachers are generally better educated than their more prestigious counterparts in other professions. Ortega's observation is as valid today as it was when he wrote:

> The new barbarian is above all the professional man, more learned than ever before, but at the same time more uncultured – the engineer, the physician, the lawyer, the scientist. (1930)

The university, which should be the institution above all others which teaches the ordinary student to be a cultured person and a member of the profession still produces barbarians, perhaps even more so than in Ortega's day. Ortega would make the Faculty of Culture the nucleus of the university and indeed, of the whole of higher education. The students are apprentices to culture and apprentices to a profession. They are therefore taught by the best available pedagogy to be a good doctor, a good engineer, a good teacher or a good lawyer; and they are also educated in the great cultural disciplines.

Despite the fact that teachers are, on average, better educated than doctors, lawyers or engineers, there is nevertheless a community concern that teachers should be even better educated than they are. In the United States the influential report of the Task Force on teaching as a profession, *A Nation Prepared* has recommended that recruits to the professional study of teaching should first of all have a Bachelor degree in the arts and sciences (Carnegie Corporation, 1986). It is proposed that there should be a new professional curriculum in graduate schools of education which leads to a Master in Teaching degree, and that this would be based on systematic knowledge of teaching and include internship and residences in the schools. The same report tackles the question of improved recruitment into teaching by addressing itself to the professional status of teachers. This leads it to recommend that teachers' salaries and career opportunities be made competitive with those in other professions. Furthermore, it is proposed that there be more differentiation within the teaching profession in the United States and that schools be restructured so as to provide a professional environment for teaching, freeing them to decide how best to meet the community's goals for children while at the same time holding them accountable for student progress. The Task Force would restructure the teaching profession and introduce a new category of what they call 'lead teachers' who would have a proven ability to provide active leadership in the redesign of schools and in helping their colleagues to uphold high standards of learning and teaching.

These questions are not irrelevant in Australia although the standards of general pre-service training and of in-service education are probably better than in the generality of provision in the United States. The question of commitment to teaching remains however; allegations are still made that too many Australian teachers, especially females, see their job purely as a means of gaining the extra family income needed for the education of their own children. We do not know if this is true because there is no systematic evidence. A related but deeper question is the career structure of teaching. The idea of master teachers whose high talent is recognised already exists in some of our systems. But should teaching be seen as a lifetime career for all of those who enter it? Is there a case for a category of teachers who may spend only a portion of their whole life in teaching; or for provision for 'work sabbaticals' in which teachers spend a considerable period seconded to other occupations?

References

Adams, R.S. *et al.* (1970) Symposium on Teacher Roles in Four English Speaking Countries, *Comparative Education Review*, Vol. 14, No. 1.

Anderson, D.S. and Western, J.S. (1967) *An Inventory to Measure Students' Attitudes*, University of Queensland Press, Brisbane. Analysis of some results from use of the inventory is reported by the authors in 'Attitudes of Students Entering Professional Faculties', *Australian Journal of Education*, Vol. 21, No. 3, 290-9.

Anderson, D.S. (1974) *The Development of Student-Teachers: A Comparative Study of Professional Socialisation*. OECD, Paris.

Anderson, D.S., Carpenter, P.G., Western, J.S. and Williams, T.H. (1983) Professional Socialisation in Training and Work. (Unpublished).

Battersby, D. and Koh, K. (1980) Situational Adjustment: the Case of the Beginning Teacher and the Asian University Student, *Rescent*, Vol. 4, No. 1, 5-13.

Biddle, B.J. (1970) *Role Theory: Expectations, Identities and Behaviours*. Academic Press, New York.

Carnegie Corporation (1986) *A Nation Prepared*. Carnegie Corporation, New York.

Carpenter, P. and Foster, B. (1978) Teachers in the Making, *The Forum on Education*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 3, 46.

Carpenter, P. and Foster, B. (1979) Deciding to Teach, *The Australian Journal of Education,* Vol. 23, No. 2, 122.

Carpenter, P., Foster, B. and Byde-Mullens, P. (1982) From Recruit to Beginning Teacher, *Unicorn,* Bulletin of the Australian College of Education, Vol. 8, No. 1, 31.

Coulter, F. (1972) Commitment to Teaching and Occupational Mobilty Among Beginning Teachers, *Australian Journal of Education,* Vol. 16, No. 3, 240.

Coulter, F. and Elsworth, G. (1973) Relationships Between Professional Self-Perception and Commitment to Teaching, *Australian Journal of Education,* Vol. 22, No. 1, 25-37.

Geer, B. (1966) Occupational Commitment and the Teaching Profession, *School Review,* Vol. 74, 31-47.

Goffman, E. (1957) Characteristics of Total Institutions, in *Symposium on Preventive and Social Psychiatry.* Walter Reed Army Institute of Research, 43-84.

Hargreaves, D.H. (1975) *Interpersonal Relations and Education.* Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Harman, C. (1981) Attitudinal Change of Teacher Education Students During Practice Teaching and College Units, *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice,* Vol. 1, No. 2, 104.

Lortie, C. (1975) *School Teacher: A Sociological Study,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

McArthur, J. (1981) The First Five Years of Teaching, *ERDC Report,* No. 30.

Ortega y Gasset, J. (1930) *Mission of the University,* Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co. Ltd., London.

Petty, M. and Hogben, D. (1980) Explorations of Semantic Space with Beginning Teachers: A Study of Socialisation into Teaching, *British Journal of Teacher Education,* Vol. 6, No. 1, 51-61.

Power, P. (1981) Aspects of the Transition from Education Student to Beginning Teacher, *The Australian Journal of Education,* Vol. 25, No. 3, 288-96.

Shipman, M.D. (1967) Theory and Practice in the Education of Teachers, *Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 9, 208-12.

Walker, N. (1967) Occupational Commitment in a Sampling of Australian Teachers Five Years After Training, *The Australian Journal of Higher Education,* Vol. 3, No. 1.

Waller, W. (1932) What Teaching Does to Teachers, in *The Sociology of Teaching,* John Wiley & Sons, New York, 375-409.

PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS OF TEACHERS ON A CAREER CONTINUUM

Edward Scott

Introduction

A career in teaching may be short or long. Whatever, it usually spans three phases – student teacher, neophyte, mature teacher. The latter phase, which normally covers the longest part of a teacher's career may be dynamic or relatively static – both in terms of professional growth and range of experiences and professional opportunities. Throughout each phase a teacher experiences, or has attributed to him/her, both personal and professional needs, the satisfaction of which plays a significant part in the quality of his/her performance in the variety of teacher roles. Accordingly, a major purpose of this paper is to attempt to identify the current needs of teachers in the various phases of their careers and to discuss their implications for teacher development in the interest of quality performance.

The climate of teaching is not static being sensitive to changes in the attitudes, values, social conditions and expectations of society and to developments in technology and the knowledge state. Such changes require teachers to acquire new skills and adopt new roles. Thus, this paper also aims to address this problem.

Needs and Concerns of Student Teachers

There is no universal pattern of pre-service teacher education in the current Australian context. Preschool teachers are usually prepared in either a three-year diploma or four-year professional degree program. Primary and secondary school teachers may be prepared in any one of a three-year diploma program, a four-year concurrent degree plus diploma program, a four-year professional degree program, a degree (three or four years) plus an end-on one-year diploma program, and a degree (three or four years) plus an end-on two-year professional degree program. Despite the variations in nature and length of programs, all would claim to prepare the student adequately for the role of neophyte in the profession with what Schuttenberg (1983) refers to as developmental understanding (the 'why' of teaching), academic understanding (the 'what' of teaching) and instructional understanding (the 'how' of teaching), and with a healthy attitude towards students and with the basic competencies for teaching. There is a significant measure of consensus that the competencies which student teachers need are skills in communication, in curriculum planning and instruction, in student evaluation, in diagnosis of learning difficulties, and in classroom management (Auchmuty, 1980; Beeson, 1982; Turney *et al.*, 1982).

It is interesting to note that although all programs have in-built requirements for practical school experience, the quantum of such experience has been shown (Auchmuty, 1980) to vary from six to forty weeks. Currently there is no minimum school experience requirement for national accreditation of teacher education awards. In only one state, Victoria (with 45 days for technical and secondary teachers), is there a minimum requirement for teacher registration.

1. The Student Teacher Mix

The time has long passed when the student teacher was almost exclusively a late adolescent and recent school leaver. While such students are still in the majority, approximately 25% of students presently entering pre-service teacher education programs are mature age students who had deferred entry or are planning to re-enter the workforce and are commencing tertiary study for the first time or who are embarking upon preparation for a change in career pathways. Recognition of the new 'mix' of the student teacher group is important, for the range of individual differences in personal maturity and life experiences give rise to differing personal and professional needs and concerns that must be recognised in pre-service teacher education.

School leavers not only face the task of coping with the formal elements of their teacher education program but, in varying degrees, are currently grappling with their newfound personal and social autonomy, their growing awareness of their own sexuality and, in many instances, with the experience of living away from the family home for the first time. Many mature age students have already come to grips with their personal autonomy and have experienced some of its pleasures, its responsibilities and its anxieties. Most have come to grips with their sexuality, and some have experienced the world of work. Many have experienced parenthood and have a practical knowledge and understanding of child development, and in the role of parent have experienced teaching the young. As a result of their differing experiential backgrounds, mature age students tend to function at a different level of conceptual awareness from that of their school-leaver counterparts.

Van Cleaf (1982) argues that the design and implementation of teacher education programs - including school experience - need to become more responsive to the differences in experiential background and maturity of students entering the programs. This view is supported by Coulter (1980) whose study suggests that

> teacher educators may not be giving appropriate recognition to the fact that student teachers bring to the training situation widely differing personalities, professional aspirations and teaching styles which they strive to express and test in the process of becoming a teacher. (p23)

2. Needs and Concerns

In the absence of a significant Australian research literature on the concerns of student teachers, some insights can be gleaned from a study by Taylor (1975) of graduate teacher education students in the United Kingdom. Taylor studied the professional concerns of the students in a six category paradigm, *viz.* practice of teaching, which related to mastery of a range of teaching techniques; theory of teaching, which related to understanding the theory of effective teaching; school and staff, which related to getting to know the authority structure of the school; discipline and class control, which related to getting the class to accept one's authority; pupils, which related to having a knowledge of how pupils learn and make judgements; and curriculum, which related to understanding how to plan lessons.

The results of the study showed that the students' concerns at the start of the course (*early concerns*) were in the areas of 'practice of teaching' and 'discipline'. Although these concerns remained, by the end of their course their concerns (*later concerns*) had broadened to include the areas of 'theory of teaching' and 'curriculum'. While the study did not address the question, one can anticipate that uncertainty as to ability to teach *per se* and as to one's ability to 'control the class' may well have been reservations of some students before commencing school experience exacerbated by their initial teaching experience.

The study suggests that the students seemed to show some concern for self-evaluation in both the early and late phases of the program. In the early phase such concern had a more personal than professional orientation.

The most striking thing about Taylor's findings is that they were consistent with those of a study by Fuller (1969), which, in turn, were consistent with ten other studies over a thirty-six year period. Of his own study, Taylor says

> There is evidence from it that the general level of concerns rises so that the once-peripheral concerns with the theory of teaching, with pupils and curriculum take their place alongside concerns with practical teaching capabilities and class control. It is as if the levels of early concerns is as much as the graduate can bear in the first part of his training and most of this is taken up in developing a coping strategy which leads to survival in the classroom and sustains an acceptable level of self-adequacy. (Taylor, 1975, 157-8)

In generalising from Taylor's study to the Australian scene, two major observations should be kept in mind. First the sample of student teachers studied embraced only students in an end-on diploma-type program – presumably preparing for secondary teaching. Would students in programs of differing structure express the same concerns? Would students oriented to other levels of teaching express the same concerns? Second, if the student group were differentiated on the basis of direct entry from school and mature age, would the concerns differ between the categories of students? Obviously, in the absence of definitive answers, these remain as, and ought to be, researchable questions.

Another way of approaching the needs and concerns of student teachers is to study their reactions to their school experience. One such study, of 240 primary and 203 secondary students, recently reported by the Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1984) shows that both primary and secondary oriented students sought more opportunity for the following experiences:

- working with small groups of pupils;
- studying individual pupils;
- joint lesson planning with supervising teachers;
- interaction with specialist teachers;
- working with teacher aides;
- involvement in school extra-curricular activities;
- attending school staff meetings;
- meetings with parents;
- observing lessons by lecturing staff of their tertiary institution.

The results of the study also indicated that the student teachers wanted

- to be treated as a colleague by their supervising teachers;
- constructive feedback on their 'teaching';
- freedom to experiment with as many methods of teaching as possible;
- opportunities to observe a range of exemplars of teaching;
- support and reassurance from experienced teachers;
- opportunities to engage in professional discussion.

3. Implications for the Professional Development of Student Teachers

What does all of this mean for the improvement of the professional development of student teachers? There is considerable activity in reconceptualising the nature of school experience in pre-service teacher education programs. Whatever the models generated, the evidence above suggests that programs most likely to accommodate the individual differences of student teachers in terms of experiential background, needs and concerns will be those which are designed in accordance with three basic principles, *viz.*

- the program should be professional in that it highlights its objective as contributing to the development of thinking, professional teachers. It should involve the teaching profession itself in the planning and implementation of the program;

- the program should be developmental in nature, recognising a sequence of student teacher growth which will occur in students at different rates with different manifestations of quality;

- the approach should be programmatic in that experiences should be planned and related very closely to the coursework of the student's preparation. An example of such a program has been outlined elsewhere in some detail by Scott (1978).

A critical element in the quality of student teacher development continues to be the nature of school experience supervision. Much has been written on this problem and sophisticated supervisor training programs have been developed or are being developed (see for example Turney *et al.* (1982) and the current work of the Deakin University group).

Though one can anticipate some significant impact from these sources, remembering that supervising teachers are the exemplars to whom student teachers are exposed, until there is a significant change in attitude to student teaching by the profession at large, one may search in vain for the quality supervision so urgently required.

There is an urgent need for a change in the manifested attitude of teachers' unions/associations toward genuine commitment to the principle that, as professionals, teachers have a responsibility to the maintenance of the quality of their profession. It is a fact that not all teachers are 'good' teachers and not all teachers either understand the responsibilities of good supervision or are good supervisors. Teachers' professional bodies must recognise that student supervision is a sophisticated activity and must be exercised only by those who manifest excellence in teaching and who are trained for the student supervision role.

Finally, consider 'what might be' or a 'vision splendid' - a school, functioning as a student teacher development centre, attached to the training institution - with a staff of highly qualified, specially selected Master Teachers seconded for three year periods to a joint appointment between the centre and the training institution.

All initial and advanced teaching experience for students would be undertaken in the centre, where students could concentrate upon developing basic institutional competencies under ideal conditions of class size, facilities and quality of modelling and supervision - unencumbered by the problems of inadequate material and behaviour management. Then, when they have gained adequate instructional skills and self-confidence in their execution, students would undertake the broadening phase of their development program in the normal school circuit. Here, of course, the student would face the reality of limited resources, larger classes and often management problems. But these could now be given his/her attention without the dual problem of how to teach. However, even in the normal school circuit this vision requires students to be placed with specially selected and recognised Master Teachers who would have a close relationship with the training institution - aware of its objectives and expectations.

Of course, the whole nature of the experience in the development centre would change. The relationship between Master Teacher and student teacher would parallel that of clinical professor and intern. Individual pupils and groups of pupils would be observed, their needs, interests and abilities monitored and instructional experiences planned, taught and evaluated. Indeed, the whole program of curriculum and related pedagogical studies would be located within the centre.

If we want professional teachers we must prepare them professionally.

Needs and Concerns of Beginning Teachers

At the point of entry to the profession the neophyte teacher, as with all teachers, is required to function in three major roles, *viz.* institutional (school and community), instructional and scholar. It is expected that he/she will be in possession of Schuttenberg's (1983) developmental, academic and instructional understandings and the essential competencies listed earlier, *viz.* skills in communication, in curriculum planning and instruction, in student evaluation, in diagnosis of learning difficulties, and in classroom management.

1. Needs and Concerns

Some idea of the satisfaction beginning teachers seek from entering the teaching profession (what might be termed the personal needs they hope to fill) may be gleaned from a national study of 1624 beginning Australian primary and secondary school teachers by Tisher *et al.* (1979). Subjects were asked to indicate how personally satisfied they were with certain aspects of their work – whether their satisfaction was up to expectation or less than expectations. The appropriate data are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.
Satisfaction of Beginning Teachers with Aspects of Teaching

Aspect of job	Actuality equal to expectation	Actuality less than expectation	Undecided
A feeling of security	58	18	23
Opportunity to help children	69	15	16
Opportunity to develop friendships	65	17	18
A feeling of esteem	44	19	37
Prestige in the eyes of colleagues within the school	39	13	48
Prestige in the eyes of people outside the school	43	10	47
A feeling of authority	52	17	31
Opportunity to act independently	65	17	18
Opportunity to influence the philosophy of the school	46	26	28
Opportunity to participate in curriculum and program planning	61	21	18
Opportunity to share in the running of the school	55	24	21
Opportunity for personal growth	62	18	20
Opportunity for intellectual stimulation	47	31	22
Opportunity to do the things I believe I can do well	58	23	19
A feeling of worthwhile accomplishment	52	26	21

(Tisher *et al.*, 1979, 56)

The critical indicator is the second column of the table for it indicates the minimum percentage of beginning teachers who actually had an expectation (or need) for the particular phenomenon. It also shows the proportion who felt the particular expectation (or need) was not adequately met. It will be noted that the least satisfied needs were those for 'professional' involvement and a feeling of achievement. The first column in Table 1 is cryptic in that it gives no indication of whether the expectation (or need) was high or low. The proportion experiencing poor satisfaction (middle column) are minimal proportions as there is no indication of the likely distribution of the 'undecideds' in the third column.

The conclusion which may be drawn from the study, and of which employers of teachers should take note, is that the first year of teaching is not a very personally rewarding experience for many neophyte teachers. The consequences of this require serious attention for data exist (Coulter, 1971) to show that a significant number of graduates of teacher education do not survive in the profession beyond the first year. Of course, there may be those who say 'Good! We've culled them'. But, may it not be that in the process the nation has lost some of its potentially best teachers?

What of the professional needs and concerns of beginning teachers? Reynolds and Clark (1983) in a Western Australian study, referenced in some detail later in this paper, examined the felt needs for professional assistance of a sample of 243 primary and secondary school systems with two or less years teaching experience. The results of the study showed some 26 areas in which beginning teachers needed some help. Those areas in which 20% or more of beginning teachers needed considerable assistance are shown in Table 2.

Table 2.
Professional Assistance Needed by Beginning Teachers

Area in which assistance felt to be needed	Proportion (%)* needing considerable assistance
Teaching mixed abilities	49
Teaching mixed grades	32
Record keeping	30
Awareness of resource materials available	29
Coping as a beginning teacher	26
Coping with stress in teaching/administration	25
Promoting student's self-concept	24
Parental/community involvement in the education process	24
Integration across subject areas	24
Approaches to control and discipline	23
Coping with individual differences in intellectual ability	23
Knowledge of recent developments in theories of teaching/learning	23
Different classroom organisations	27
Coping with new syllabus material	21

*Rounded (Reynolds and Clark, 1983, 59)

A Queensland study of the problems faced by 109 secondary, 236 primary and 80 infants teachers, Otto *et al.* (1979), showed that the major problems faced by beginning teachers fell into three major areas, *viz.* classroom control, teaching methods, student evaluation. An average of 50% of the beginning secondary teachers, 86% of the beginning primary teachers and 45% of the beginning infants teachers experienced control problems. The figures for those experiencing method problems were 45% secondary, 84% primary and 41% infants. None of the secondary or infants teachers reported problems with student evaluation whereas 82% of the primary teachers did report problems in that area. Otto *et al.* reported that most of the problems reported by beginning infants teachers were in the teaching method area.

The national Australian study by Tisher *et al.* (1979) found somewhat similar concerns among beginning teachers. The concerns, each acknowledged by 20% or more of the sampled teachers, were:

- teaching groups with wide range of abilities;
- teaching slow learners;
- discovering level at which to teach;
- motivating pupils;
- controlling classes;
- devising of schemes of work;
- teaching specific skills;
- assessing pupils' work;
- evaluating own teaching.

Following a review of Australian and New Zealand, and overseas studies of beginning teachers, Battersby (1981) reported that there was a consistency among the problems reported. The most frequently reported problems included (p26):

- handling discipline problems;
- learning administrative routines and procedures;
- acquiring and understanding the school philosophy;
- establishing relationships with colleagues;
- adjusting to the physical and emotional demands of teaching;
- planning and evaluation;
- difficulties with parents;
- teaching some curriculum subjects.

In the light of these findings it is interesting to note the results of a Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1981) study which compared importance attached by school inspectors, principals, teacher educators, experienced teachers and beginning teachers themselves to a number of dimensions of beginning teacher qualities. The mean scale scores for each group are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Beginning Teacher Qualities: Mean Scale Scores

Factor	Lecturers	Inspectors	Principals	Experienced teachers	Beginning teachers
Techniques of teaching	3.92	3.75	3.80	3.84	4.11
Professional qualities	3.69	4.09	4.07	3.92	3.85
Personal characteristics	4.22	4.22	4.10	4.22	4.33
Knowledge base for teaching	3.39	3.20	3.21	3.05	3.05

(Queensland Board of Teacher Education, 1981, 27)

While all groups judged personal characteristics to be the most important qualities of beginning teachers, beginning teachers rated techniques of teaching very highly also and more highly than did the other groups. The relatively low importance attached to a knowledge base for teaching must surely be of some concern.

Although there are obvious problems in generalising from and between the studies reported, one is tempted, when relating the above studies, to suggest that there may be more than a grain of truth in the observation of Nixon and Bumbarger (1984) that teachers in training have serious reservations in the abilities of teacher educators to provide them with programs which will enhance their teaching abilities.

2. The Way Ahead

Taken overall, the research data presented suggest the need for two significant courses of action. First, one cannot help but conclude that there are serious deficiencies in traditional teacher education programs – including the school experience component. There would appear to be a need for major program revision done on a cooperative basis being planned in concert by tertiary institution staff from all sectors involved, by teachers, by administrators and by new graduates. The emerging programs, to be assured of effectiveness, would need to be taught as a joint venture between the institution and the profession and monitored by a committee of similar composition to the planning group. Second, as the National Inquiry into Teacher Education, Auchmuty (1980), noted 'The initiation of the beginning teacher into the school teaching situation must be considered an integral part of the professional development process'. (p98)

Schools, in increasing numbers, are accepting responsibility for the induction of neophytes to the school and the teaching profession. It is not intended here to review either the nature or success of the wide range of induction arrangements. Suffice it to suggest all schools receiving neophyte teachers should be encouraged to provide for their systematic induction, and to raise some fundamental principles for consideration by schools in so doing.

An induction program should:

1. be seen as the first stage in a teacher's in-service professional development (Auchmuty, 1980);
2. be idiosyncratic (Ramsay, 1979);
3. begin with a debriefing session (covering the beginning teacher's background school experience, felt strengths, uncertainties, expectations and aspirations) and a briefing session as to the general 'ethos' of the school. The session should be conducted by a delegated, experienced 'support' teacher (*e.g.* a Master Teacher or a senior teacher);
4. be mutually planned by the beginning teacher and the 'support' teacher;
5. be non-threatening and non-evaluative;
6. be needs-based and forward looking rather than remedial;
7. incorporate target dates for periodic reviews of progress by the beginning teacher and support teacher dyad;
8. be flexible to accommodate the beginning teacher's rate of development and should not be unnecessarily prolonged;
9. provide freedom for the beginning teacher to develop an idiosyncratic 'teacher style';
10. be based on the assumption that the support teacher will be responsible for socialising the beginning teacher into the school community – teaching and support staff, students, parents – and to appropriate professional association;
11. provide for reduced teaching responsibilities for the beginning teacher in the first year of teaching and for placement in classroom situations of a size and tone amenable to the development of self-confidence;
12. make provision for breakdowns in compatibility between the beginning teacher and support teacher to be aired and appropriate remedial action taken.

The effects of reviews of teacher education programs will be longer in their maturity. Pursuing a professional approach to induction, on a shorter timescale, has real possibilities for development of a more professional satisfied, committed and capable body of teachers.

Career-Long Needs of Teachers

In an average career in teaching, spanning ten or more years, a teacher is likely to work in a number of differing contexts – *e.g.* in different geographical regions, in different school systems, possibly at different age levels, in schools of different size, in single grade and multigrade classrooms, in single teacher and cooperative teaching classrooms, in a special purpose school and so on. In that career a teacher may also fill a variety of positions such as classroom teacher (in its generic sense), advisory teacher, curriculum co-ordinator, resource teacher, itinerant teacher, teacher-counsellor, subject master/

mistress, senior master/mistress, deputy principal, principal. Throughout such a career the teacher will have a number of personal and professional needs the satisfaction of which will be a significant determinant in his/her overall adjustment and professional competency.

1. Personal Needs

The personal needs of teachers do not differ from those of other people. Among the human needs identified by Maslow (1970), four (freedom from anxiety or threat, affiliation, self-esteem, and self-actualisation) are particularly relevant and constant throughout a teacher's career – varying in strength only according to the degree of satisfaction they receive from time to time. The generalised satisfaction or frustration of these needs results from the interaction of their fulfilment or denial (by way of their exacerbation, amelioration or compensation) in whatever contexts the teacher moves (and the professional context is only one) as a human being. Furthermore, it should be noted that these needs are in hierarchical order of importance, as listed, from freedom from anxiety or threat to self-actualisation. Needs at the lower level dominate the higher and unless they are adequately satisfied they will command the teacher's attention and the higher needs will not be satisfied.

(a) *The need for freedom from anxiety or threat*

Situations which have the potential to create anxiety and threat in the professional lives of teachers include:

- being asked to teach beyond one's level of competence;
- being asked to accept responsibilities for which one is not prepared;
- the introduction of new curricula with which one is not familiar;
- being asked to teach in a cooperative teaching situation when one is essentially a 'loner';
- constant monitoring by one's superiors;
- moving from a system of external examinations to school-based assessment;
- exposure, in terms of accountability, to parents;
- uncertainty as to system/school policies, rules and/or procedures.

This need can often be ameliorated in the professional context by such activities as unobtrusive peer support; school designed induction programs for new staff; the use of advance organisers to prepare teachers, and the maintenance of support for them, when the introduction of curriculum and procedural innovations are planned; the joint planning and implementation of individualised professional development programs.

(b) *The need for affiliation*

In their professional lives teachers need to establish good relationships with their peers and students. They need to be accepted by them and to experience the feeling of belongingness. They want to have confidence in and respect for their peers and want such confidence and respect reciprocated. They want to like and be liked by those around them – including their students. As with the other psychological needs, the strength of the need for affiliation varies from teacher to teacher – as does what constitutes adequate satisfaction of it. A study by Cruickshank (1981) found that teachers who are bothered by affiliation tend to be self-critical, angry, dependent, shy, inconsiderate and dissatisfied with teaching.

School administrators should realise that they can counsel but they cannot make peers respect, like or accept one another, and they can't make their students respect or like their teachers and vice versa. But what they can do, and should aspire to do, is to create a strong sense of identity of students and staff with the school, a collegial environment for teachers through shared and consultative decision-making and responsibility. They should 'set the scene' by an attitude of personal acceptance of, and respect for, all members of the school community.

(c) *The need for self-esteem*

In the professional context teachers gain positive self-esteem from freedom from anxiety or threat; from knowledge that they are masters of their professional roles; from confidence in, and awareness of, their abilities and capacities to cope with the range of situations in which they operate – in interaction with peers, students, parents, the community; from knowledge of their acceptance by significant others and of the approval by others of their performance. Thus it becomes important that teachers are provided with performance expectations that will serve as criteria for them in assessing their own performance level. Similarly, it is important that they receive feedback about their performance from significant others. Feedback should be positive and, where performance is not up to expectation, should provide advice and opportunities through which improved performance might be achieved.

(d) *The need for self-actualisation*

In the teacher's professional life this need refers to such phenomena as the need to exercise one's creative talents, to self-expression, to have a measure of independence in decision-making, to have the opportunity for involvement in policy-making. School administrators can contribute to satisfying this need through strategies such as involving teachers in curriculum development processes, through the delegation of administrative responsibility, through making opportunities for teachers to experience leadership among their peers, and through encouraging and supporting classroom action research.

By inference, these needs and their fulfilment have implications for system and school management. Significant frustration of any one of them may well lead to teacher burnout or stress – manifested in such symptoms as poor performance, absenteeism, hypochondriasis, carelessness, constant bickering, and so on – symptoms which place in jeopardy not only the learning experiences of the students but also the standing, tone and efficiency of the school.

2. Professional Needs

There is reasonable consensus among teacher educators (both pre-service and in-service) that the professional life of a teacher passes through a number of development stages. The first is a period in which the primary concern of the teacher is *survival* – a stage usually associated with beginning teachers striving to 'learn the system', to be accepted and recognised as a teacher. The second is a period of *consolidation* in which the teacher is primarily concerned with developing confidence in the task at hand. The third is a period of *extension* in which the teacher experiences the need to extend his/her professional skills and understandings, to keep abreast of new developments and to acquire (through further formal study or in-service education) the competency to respond to changing responsibilities, changing emphases in curriculum, pedagogy, classroom technology, classroom organisation; and changing societal attitudes which impinge upon the school. The fourth period is one of *refreshment* in which teachers need the opportunity to 'recharge the batteries', to regain their enthusiasm, to question their understandings and practices. It is the period of the well-documented phenomenon of teacher burnout.

The development of the knowledge and skills for the periods of survival and consolidation are normally essential components of pre-service teacher education programs. However, they require complementing by carefully articulated school induction programs. Past the survival stage, development categorisation takes little cognisance of the fluidity of change in the teaching situation. While some teacher needs may be specifically identified with the stage of a teacher's professional development (or experience), contemporary research suggests that after consolidation there is a high degree of generalisation of teachers' professional needs regardless of the length of teaching experience. Teacher burnout, for example is not simply a matter of fatigue, but also a function of inability to cope with a rapidly changing scene.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, a major, systematic study of the professional needs of teachers was undertaken by Reynolds and Clark (1984) in Western Australia. In that study, 1336 (or approximately 9%) of the population of teachers in the state's public, catholic and independent pre-schools, primary and secondary schools were surveyed by questionnaire. Of the teachers sampled, 243 (approximately 18%) had two years or less teaching experience, 271 (approximately 20%) from three to five years, 218 (approximately 16%) had from eleven to fifteen years, and 287 (approximately 21%) had had more than fifteen years' experience. Approximately 43% of the teachers sampled were male and approximately 57% were female (comparable to the proportions in the Western Australian teaching profession as a whole). Approximately 4% of the teachers were in pre-schools, approximately 50% were primary teachers, 40% were secondary teachers and about 6% were both primary and secondary teachers or in specialist positions. Approximately 48% of the sample were in administrative positions such as senior master/mistress, deputy principal or principal. The majority of the teachers (approximately 61%) classified themselves as working in the metropolitan area while approximately 39% saw themselves as teaching in country areas.

All teachers sampled were asked to identify the curriculum areas or subjects in which they felt a need for professional development and to indicate those aspects in which they felt a need for assistance, *viz.* in content; teaching strategies; programming skills; classroom organisation; student evaluation; and dealing with atypical students. In addition, they were asked to identify the specific aspects with which they felt they needed help, if any, in a number of general areas of professional development, *viz.* in developing their role as a professional; in understanding education as a process; in developing their skills and knowledge of teaching groups, of teaching individuals, of curriculum organisation and implementation; in interaction with professional colleagues and interacting with parents and the community at large; in skill in filling the role of administrator in a school community.

Although there were some differences related to the age level taught, length of experience and whether teaching in country or metropolitan areas, taken overall, the curriculum/subject needs of primary and secondary teachers, ranked in terms of proportion of teachers indicating that they needed help, were as shown in Table 4.

The relatively low proportion of teachers seeking assistance in teaching atypical students appeared directly related to the teacher's experience with such students.

The sampled teachers' needs in the respective aspects of the broad areas of general professional development are described fully in Reynolds and Clark (1984, 34-62). Suffice it to report here some significant findings. Approximately 56% of teachers reported the need for help in coping with stress in teaching/administration – the importance of this need is highlighted by a Queensland Teachers' Union (1983) study which reported that 43% of the teachers sampled found the teaching situation extremely stressful and 32% found it mildly stressful. Some 53% of the sample reported the need for a greater knowledge of departmental policies, regulations and procedures; 32% needed help in developing and clarifying a personal philosophy of education; 61% needed help in coping with new directions and changes in the teaching role; 59% needed more knowledge of recent developments in theories of teaching/learning; 52% wanted help in developing and managing parental and community involvement in the educational process; and 49% needed assistance in translating theories of education into classroom practice. In addition, 42% needed help with classroom control and discipline; 51% wanted help with classroom technology; 44% needed help with promoting a positive classroom climate to optimise learning.

Table 4. Curriculum/Subject Needs of Teachers

Area	Primary		Secondary	
	%	Rank	%	Rank
Knowledge of syllabus/subject content	61	2	63	1
Help with teaching strategies	64	1	60	2
Help with programming skills	53	4.5	48	6.5
Help with classroom and resource organisation	53	4.5	47	8
Help with diagnosis/testing/assessing student performance	60	3	52	5
Teaching atypical students				
• the gifted learner	36	8	48	6.5
• the slow learner	44	6	57	4
• the unmotivated learner	42	7	58	3
• the migrant	20	10	25	10
• the Aboriginal	23	9	30	9

Summarised across all teachers sampled, and averaged for the category, the development needs in the broad general categories referenced above are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. General Areas in Which Teachers Express Needs

Category	% Indicating Need	Rank
Developing the teacher's professional role	31	6.5
Understanding education as a process	54	1
Skills and knowledge of teaching groups	43	2
Skills and knowledge of teaching individuals	32	5
Skills and knowledge of curriculum organisation and implementation	31	6.5
Interaction with professional colleagues	30	8
Interaction with parents and with the community at large	37	3
Skill in filling the role of school administrator	34	4

Another useful, but less extensive, study of teachers' perceptions of their own professional development needs was undertaken by Moore (1983) in a questionnaire study of 493 primary and 382 secondary teachers in Victoria. The results of this study also show that various sorts of teachers have differing felt needs which also vary according to location and time. However, some generalisations are possible. Both primary and secondary teachers appear to express the need for assistance in curriculum planning, development and evaluation; in student assessment; in management of classroom behaviour; and in teaching in multicultural situations. As a group, primary teachers felt the need for assistance in most subject areas in the primary school curriculum. Secondary teachers, on the other hand, appeared, as a group, to express priorities for assistance in identifying, generating and using learning resources in developing parent and community involvement; in catering for individual differences and in remedial education techniques; in administrative skills; in interschool cooperation; in human relations; and in cooperative teaching techniques.

How is the help that teachers seek to be given? The very nature of individual differences among teachers in their felt professional needs, together with the wide range in the etiology of such needs, preclude aspiration of a panacea. There are, however, a number of principles which, if observed, should enhance the probability of designed teacher support activities achieving their purpose. Such activities should:

1. as far as possible, be preventive rather than remedial. For example, planned curriculum or organisational innovations or conversion programs should incorporate envisaged additional teacher responsibilities, knowledge and skills required, and the appropriate strategies for assisting teachers to meet them, as part of the implementation strategy;
2. be needs focused designed to meet the anticipated or expressed needs of teachers (Goodlad, 1975);
3. be determined and planned in consultation with the teachers they are intended to assist (Moore, 1983);
4. be planned and designed to maximise ease of teacher access to the knowledge, skills, insights and so on that they seek;
5. encompass multiple strategies for delivery of the activities;
6. be development oriented aimed at enhancing the competence of teachers over time;
7. take cognisance of how teachers (as adults) learn (Tough, 1971) and be oriented accordingly;
8. be non-threatening to those for whom the support is intended;
9. provide for evaluation of the efficacy of the support (Warner and Lipke, 1981);
10. provide for follow-up maintenance of the support (Warner and Lipke, 1981).

Currently a large array of possible avenues for teacher support may be identified in practice. Such avenues include:

- in-service programs of differing duration (system sponsored/school sponsored; in school/out of school; whole school/specific groups);
- advisory teacher services (school provided/system provided; on request/regular program);
- lighthouse schools (system sponsored) supporting surrounding schools and teachers;
- specific project teams (school developed/system provided);
- professional seminars (school sponsored/system sponsored/professional teacher association sponsored/teachers' union sponsored);

- professional consultancies (school funded/system funded);
- within school case-study sessions (based on the principle of mutual support);
- within school individualised teacher development programs – in which senior staff (*e.g.* Master Teachers) discuss teachers' needs with them and together arrange and monitor appropriate support activities;
- teacher exchange programs (school sponsored/system sponsored, of varying duration, for varying purposes, involving staff exchanges within the system/external to the system);
- visiting teacher program to tertiary institutions (school/system sponsored) – usually of a semester duration in which the visiting teacher pursues a non-examinable development program mutually agreed among the teacher, sponsor and tertiary institution;
- courses, of varying length, at tertiary institutions (award/non-award).

The array is somewhat bewildering and most elements of it are expensive, which tends to emphasise the importance of the principles enunciated.

A potentially useful support strategy, particularly for teachers seeking help in classroom control and teaching strategies, used in some initial teacher education programs but seldom in schools, is 'Guided Self-Analysis' – a self-development program for teachers sponsored over a decade ago by Parsons (1974). It is not so much Parsons' specific program that has potential as it is the fundamental principles on which it is based. In summary, the program involves the teacher in establishing lesson objectives, planning teacher-learning activities to achieve the objectives, recording the subsequent teaching session(s), replaying the lesson in whole or part, as often as required, and addressing a list of critical questions to analyse the interaction to determine whether objectives were realised and under what circumstances, to seek, through such analysis, explanation for success or failure in achieving the objectives. Where necessary, alternative teacher behaviours (both structuring and reacting) are hypothesised and the lesson taught again (with another group) and the same analytic procedures applied. While the first analysis is usually done in private, reanalysing in the company of, and in discussion with, an experienced colleague (*e.g.* a Master Teacher) has proved helpful.

Finally, there are two potentially fruitful but neglected avenues for teacher support – one of which is underutilised and the other not utilised in Australia. First, teleconferencing, either on a dyadic or network basis with an advisor or consultant (for example with a teacher in a lighthouse school) as a means of teacher support, is underutilised. It is a technique (often used with home tutors in correspondence teaching situations) which is particularly applicable to teachers in remote areas. The second is the use of the national and regional commercial television networks for teacher-development in non-prime viewing time. Perhaps overarching policy-makers must be convinced that the real cost to society is not in providing the service but rather in failing to provide it!

Differential Needs of Teachers in Various Contexts

A career in teaching will not end in the educational context in which it began. As society changes, a concurrent necessity is adjustment to educational policy and practice. As such changes have impacted upon education systems, systems have found it necessary to broaden the range of educational activities in which they engage. This has resulted in the development of a widening of the range of specialist appointments - a broadening of career outlets for teachers at all levels. But as almost all teachers have been prepared for life in stereotype classrooms, new knowledge, new understandings and new skills must be developed by those who seek to fill management or specialist positions.

Table 6 lists many of the specialist appointments to be found in Australia's school systems. It also lists several (marked with an asterisk) which are presently largely speculative but which will be subject to special mention. In an attempt to bring some order into the list, the respective positions have been grouped according to their area of responsibility. It is proposed, in the main, to discuss here the categories *per se.*

1. Administrative Positions

Each position in this category with the exception of Coordinator of Student Teacher Practicum, is a promotions position with senior policy making and administrative decision-making responsibility. Each, where it is located, is an important link in the school administration chain. The incumbent of each position needs appropriate managerial skills strong in human relations, supervision and communication - skills which, even if they appear to be a natural characteristic of the incumbent, may be sharpened through specialist training in broadly based programs of school administration. In many instances (and certainly usually excluding Practicum Coordinators and Boarding Masters/Mistresses) such skills are acquired via courses taken at tertiary institutions prior to appointment to the position. But all too often such training is after appointment and often through specifically oriented in-service activities.

The role of Coordinator of Practicum is becoming increasingly important and should only be filled by those displaying excellence in teaching and a commitment to their profession and appropriately qualified in the student-supervision and staff-supervision roles.

The positions of Boarding Master/Mistress are, by their very nature, relatively few in number. Persons filling these roles must have pride in and commitment to the school and its philosophy, sound human relations skills, warmth, a deep and empathetic understanding of human nature and a high degree of both initiative and self-control.

Table 6. Current and Project Specialisations

Appointment	Area of responsibility
Principal	Administration
Deputy Principal	"
Senior Mistress	"
Senior Master/Mistress	"
Subject Master/Mistress	"
Coordinator of Student-teacher Practicum	"
Housemaster/mistress	"
Boarding master/mistress	"
Curriculum Coordinator	Curriculum (Design and Delivery)
Subject Advisory Teacher	"
Health Educator	"
Personal Development Educator	"
Transition Educator	"
Outdoor Education Teacher	"
Careers Educator	"
Work Experience Coordinator	"
Resource Teacher	Special Education Services
Remedial Educator	"
Special Education Teacher of	
• profoundly deaf	"
• blind	"
• physically handicapped	"
• mentally retarded	"
• intellectually gifted and talented	"
Advisory Teacher	"
Teacher Librarian	Teacher Support Services
Computer Aided Instruction Specialist	"
Audio-Visual Teacher/Adviser	"
Master Teacher*	"
Welfare Teachers	Welfare Teachers
Rehabilitation Teachers	"
Teacher-Counsellor*	Student Welfare Support
Teacher-Social Worker*	"
Teacher-Communications Specialist*	"
Rural Teacher	Special Context Teachers
Itinerant Teacher	"
School of the Air Teacher	"
Distance Education Teacher	"
Museum Education Officer	"
Zoo Education Officer	"
Art Gallery Education Officer	"
Botanical Gardens Education Officer	"
Aboriginal School Teacher	"

2. Curriculum Positions

Teachers in these positions are, of necessity, steeped in the knowledge and competencies required in their positions. They require appointees who are essentially academic leaders, facilitators (not dogmatists) and coordinators of others. The incumbents should be enthusiasts (but not bores); they should listen as well as being heard; they should be visionaries in their domains and active in action research. They, too, because of the nature of their roles, should be above average practitioners of human relations and communication skills.

Several of the positions, *viz.* those of Transition Educator, Careers Educator, Outdoor Educator and Work Experience Coordinator interface with the community. Accordingly, the attributes of good public relations facilitators should be among the appointees' strengths.

3. Special Education Positions

Each of the positions in this category requires a high degree of professional competence and integrity. No-one should be appointed to such a position without appropriate prior training. Appointees to positions relating to children with learning difficulties should also be selected because of those essential personal traits of understanding and patience. They should relate well to fellow professionals, be able to work well in a team and to communicate easily with classroom teachers. Their class load or case load should be low to permit the patience and thoroughness their responsibilities command.

Teachers of intellectually gifted and talented children should themselves be scholars and appreciative of the arts. They should function as facilitators working with their students to design and pursue programs that challenge and enhance the student's excellence.

It should be noted that there is a widespread trend to mainstreaming of atypical children. Such a policy will require regular accessible advisory support and professional development assistance for those classroom teachers involved.

4. Teacher Support Positions

The effectiveness of teacher support services is dependent, in large part, upon two phenomena, *viz.* the professional competence of the specialist and reciprocity of cooperative attitude and support between the specialist and the teacher in mutual respect and trust. Essentially support personnel will work in a dyadic relationship in response to a felt need and request for assistance from the classroom teacher. Although such specialists, other than Master Teachers, should be action-research oriented, they must avoid the oversell and excessive demands on the school's limited financial resources.

The concept of Master Teachers has been alluded to several times already in this paper. There is an urgent need in schools to retain excellence in teaching in the classroom. That is, there is need for outstanding teachers to serve in schools as exemplars of teaching at its best, to be available as consultants and sounding boards for peers, to fill such roles as student teacher advisors, to be support teachers for beginning teachers, to be visionaries in the art of teaching. Such teachers should be rewarded for their excellence in the classroom.

5. Welfare Teachers

Teachers chosen to work in Welfare institutions/schools, in addition to excellence in teaching, should have a profound knowledge and understanding of child and adolescent development. They must be conversant with the law. They must be teachers who manifest understanding, patience, loyalty and trust. They must be in constant liaison with mainstream teachers and spend regular periods of stimulation and refreshment in mainstream schools.

6. Student Welfare Support

The breakdown of the traditional family structure, the economic malaise, and the escalating drug scene pose increasing problems for schools regardless of the age range for which they are responsible. Teachers, students and their parents or guardians are increasingly in need of specialist help. It is believed that counsellors and social workers dealing with school-home and school-community problems will gain a greater acceptance from all concerned - teacher, student, parent - and be more effective if they are identified with the school, seen to understand teaching and learning, and accepted as one of a team working in the interests of the student. Thus, it is held that there is an urgent need to train teacher-counsellors and teacher-social workers who enjoy dual professional registration and who would be appointed to individual schools of a minimum size or to clusters of schools, regardless of level or source of governance.

There appears some observation evidence that the increase of working parents, of working single parents, and of television becoming a surrogate child-minder, is leading to a higher incidence of speech and language problems in children. To deal with this problem in the school context it is argued that teacher-communications specialists should be trained and attached to schools on the same basis as teacher-counsellors and teacher-social workers.

7. Special Context Teachers

Teachers seeking to teach, and being so appointed to teach, in special contexts should be prepared for the posting ahead of time as part of their individual professional development program, and they should have ready access to professional support. Teachers for two contexts require special consideration, *viz.* for rural schools and for aboriginal schools.

Teachers for rural schools

It is not the responsibility of this paper to address the whole question of rural education. But the observation must be made that one of the continuing problems in rural education is the high mobility rate among teachers and of retaining sufficient teachers of excellence. Tomlinson *et al.* (1985) in their review of the Commonwealth Country Areas Program were led to recommend

> That the Schools Commission sponsor a national task force to investigate the major problems of the recruitment and retention of teachers for country schools, and the causal factors of teacher mobility in country areas, and to propose measures to ensure more stability in staffing in isolated schools. (p35)

Teachers employed by state systems in Australia are required to give an understanding to teach anywhere in the state but few are trained for that context. Disaffected country teachers complain of such things as professional isolation, their failure to gain community acceptance, their unpreparedness for multigrade teaching and so on.

Perhaps the first need for country education is to scrap the emulation of the urban model. Other steps which might follow include: (i) incorporating into all teacher education programs (as is presently done in some programs) modules of study on rural culture, studies of rural communities, management of multigrade classes, rural resource people as visiting speakers or participants in rural modules; and optional school experience in country settings, (ii) short periods of staff exchange between rural and urban schools, (iii) induction programs for new country appointees geared to the culture of the context. In the case of appointments to one-teacher schools as a beginning appointment, identification of an accessible school as a 'lighthouse' school to give support – including staff visitations, (iv) liberal conditions of support for attendance at professional development seminars.

Teachers for Aboriginal Schools

It is Australian Government policy to support the training of Aboriginal and Islander teachers in the hope that they will, in the main, want to teach in their cultural schools. This program is having some bite. But for many years to come Aboriginal and Islander schools will depend upon white teachers. Such teachers often experience considerable difficulty in working in indigenous schools. There are a number of professional needs which they must fill, *viz.*

- they must acquire a philosophical and historical basis for considering Aboriginal and Islander education which involves understanding bicultural development, ethnocentrism, empowerment and community development;
- they must understand current issues of Aboriginal and Islander education in urban and rural sectors of Australia;
- they must acquire the skills of curriculum development and resource improvisation;

- they must have prior experience of living and working with Aboriginals and Islanders in their communities;
- they must understand the history of Aboriginal and Islander and European relations since European colonisation;
- they must acquire the skill of language communication in Aboriginal and Islander contexts;
- they must be aware of, and understand the issues involved in Australian race relations.

Finally, here, Australian education has developed many of its specialist appointments from a reactive stance, often to external initiatives or stimulus, rather than from a proactive stance. The consequence is that adequate preparation of staff often follows the event rather than precedes it. There are many specialist opportunities for teachers who seek a challenge outside the mainstream of classroom teaching. Unfortunately, many of them remain unattractive as they fail to provide for meeting teachers' needs for achievement - they offer no career pathways; surely an issue, which in the interest of quality education, merits urgent attention.

Changing and Prospective Roles of Teachers

1. The Changing Social and Cultural Context of Teaching

Although it is not possible to predict with accuracy the nature of Australian society at the end of the twentieth century, a number of writers and reports in recent times (*e.g.* Auchmuty, 1980; Schools Commission, 1981; Jones, 1982; Queensland Board of Teacher Education, 1985) have outlined the changing and current complex nature of it. The conclusion to be drawn from these observations is that, as with other nations, Australia is in one of the most critical periods of its history as it faces a complex set of interacting phenomena destined to result in marked changes in the structure of society - in its value system, and in the quality and style of life it offers.

In summary, contemporary Australian society faces the problems of adjusting to such phenomena as:

- the rapid expansion of knowledge and its early obsolescence;
- the emergence of new technologies requiring less labour and the acquisition of new skills, and, in the realm of industry, concomitant overproduction and the resultant increased unemployment and poverty - with growing dependence on the welfare state and a shift in employment from the industrial to the service and leisure sectors;
- the impact of scientific achievements such as cloning, human organ transplants, the silicon microchip and the harnessing of nuclear energy (to name but a few) - achievements with potential for both highly beneficial and horrendous social consequences;
- the media revolution;
- an aging and increasingly multicultural and multilingual population;
- the rise and tolerance of pluralistic value systems;

- growing support for human rights and emancipation of minority groups – reflected in anti-discrimination and equal employment opportunity legislation;
- the breakdown of marriage and the family – increasing numbers of single parents, a decrease in the average size of families, and an increasing number of mothers either in, or seeking, paid employment;
- escalating problems of drug addiction, alcoholism, hedonism and epicurean attitudes;
- a decrease in Australia's historical dependence on Europe and a strengthening of political and economic links with Asia and the Pacific region.

These phenomena, and many more, exist in a context of conflicting political ideologies, both in Australia and elsewhere, national and international economic uncertainty and international turbulence.

The mediate and longer-term social and cultural consequences of the interaction of these phenomena are speculative. Suffice it to recognise that major social changes are occurring, that the rate of these changes will inevitably increase and that the complexity and implications of them will demand unprecedented many-sided adjustments to them. The presentation and enhancement of the quality of life in the emerging society will require citizens who possess the intellectual skills of enquiry, problem solving and decision-making; citizens who have a breadth of knowledge and creative capacity, the skills of personal autonomy and social competence, ethical discretion, and cultural awareness; citizens who have career proficiency; citizens who are capable of evaluating the personal and social efficacy of their decisions. The development of such qualities must then become the goals of the school system and the qualities teachers must be competent to foster.

2. The Changing Professional Context of Teaching

The social and cultural phenomena referenced above have indirectly impacted upon the objectives, nature, and provision of schooling in Australia to produce changing professional environments in which teachers must operate. A summary of the areas in which such changes may be seen has been provided by the Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1985) in its pamphlet *Project 21: Teachers for the Twenty-First Century.* The contemporary scene may be mapped under the rubric of changes in (a) content and pedagogy (curriculum), (b) school organisation and settings, (c) locus of decision-making, and (d) equality and opportunity.

(a) *Curriculum Change*

Until the early seventies, schools were mainly organised on the basis of relatively prescribed programs of study using centrally determined syllabuses of instruction. The skills required of teachers were closely related to the implementation of these programs. Such is no longer the situation. Contemporary school programs reflect marked changes in curriculum organisation, content, pedagogy, and assessment.

(i) *Curriculum Organisation.*

Some of the current trends with significant implications for teachers are:

- organisation of syllabuses of study on a continuum from K-12 or K-10;
- school-based curriculum development (predominantly at the secondary level and usually within broad state guidelines and requiring central accreditation);
- integrated curricula (at both primary and secondary levels);
- interfacing the senior secondary curriculum with the curriculum of Colleges of Technical and Further Education; and
- core plus elective curricula (and in some instances 'tracking' - see for example the options floated by the Queensland Department of Education (1985) in its paper *Education 2000*).

Two of these trends are particularly significant in terms of teacher 'fitness for the task'. The first is the fairly widespread shift towards school-based curriculum development - here defining curriculum as the planned set of learning to which the students will be exposed.

Genuine curriculum development is not a process of curriculum tampering. Rather it is a sophisticated, rational, deliberative, dynamic and integrative process. The process involves an analysis of all the relevant factors in the educational environment, the selection of curriculum objectives, the selection and organisation of content, the selection and organisation of learning experiences and the development and implementation of evaluation strategies. Although curriculum development can be undertaken in a variety of settings by individual teachers or groups of teachers, clearly, many teachers do not possess either the competency or the experience to engage in the task. One way of overcoming the universal competency problem is through the use of a skilled external consultant as team leader. An excellent example of this approach is the project involving the staff and community to develop a total school curriculum at Lajamanu Bilingual School in the Northern Territory (see Combe, 1984).

The second trend for deeper consideration is the move toward a core plus elective studies curriculum. This trend, of course, is not new. But in its historical interpretation 'core' has commonly meant a list of subjects which all students were required to take. A seminal paper 'Core Curriculum for Australian Schools' published by the then Curriculum Development Centre (1980) challenged that concept and presented an alternative connotation, *viz.* a '. . . set of basic and essential learnings and experiences which can reasonably be expected of all children who pass through our schools.' (p4) The concept is developed fully in the paper. Suffice it to note that it is argued there that a core curriculum framework must satisfy the following criteria:

- focus on general, universal elements in culture for present and future life, *i.e. the common culture*

- acknowledge the plural, multicultural nature of our society and seek a form of cultural-social integration which values interaction and free communication amongst diverse groups and sub-cultures, *i.e. the common multiculture*
- outline those areas of knowledge, understanding and experience which all students are to study, *i.e. the common learnings*
- bring out in the subjects and themes studied, their bearing on contemporary social life, and their relevance to all human beings, *i.e. the contemporary, relevant aspects of education*
- specify minimum desirable kinds of learnings for all students, instead of attempting to cover specialised, optional and additional learnings to meet particular student and social interests and needs, *i.e. the basic, essential learnings*
- define long-term, well-sequenced and systematic learnings from the beginnings of primary to the end of school years, *i.e. the structure of learning*
- provide opportunity for students of different levels of ability, background and interest to study together, *i.e. the common learning situations*
- specify typical learning tasks and methods and ways of applying learning to life situations, *i.e. the common applied learning tasks.* (p15)

The paper goes on to state that 'One major challenge to Australian schools . . . will be to define core curriculum in such a way as to provide all students with learning tasks that are well structured, flexible, socially relevant, future oriented and stimulating'. (p15) If this challenge is to be met and if school-based curricula are to be the 'order of the day' then there are significant implications for teacher development.

The first of these is that teachers will need to be aware of contemporary Australian culture, of its universal and idiosyncratic elements, and of emerging changes in our cultural traditions. They will need an appreciation of the diversity of cultural traditions in the many ethnic groups that now form a significant part of Australian society. They will need to be skilled in curriculum and syllabus development and their evaluation. They will also need an understanding of the structure of knowledge, and of the hierarchical nature of cognitive and affective processes. If these needs are viewed as imperatives there will need to be considerable rethinking of the structure and content of many preservice teacher education programs. Meanwhile, schools will need to address these issues for existing staff through their teacher development programs.

(ii) *Changes in content*

There are considerable elements of commonality to be found in the current statement of aims of schooling in the various Australian states. Typical of such statements, and illustrative of contemporary emphases, in that of the South Australian Education Department, *viz* to help students develop:

- lively inquiring minds, a love of learning, and a willingness to apply effort to worthwhile tasks
- the ability to think rationally
- the use of the imagination
- powers of creative self-expression
- powers of judgement
- physical and mental health
- self-confidence, a sense of worth, and respect and consideration for others
- a coherent set of personal and social values and a commitment to them
- decision-making and problem-solving skills
- an understanding of themselves and their world
- competence in intellectual, social and physical skills
- knowledge of skills relevant to adult life and employment.

(Steinle, 1981, 19)

Within the spirit of seeking to fulfil these aims two trends are discernible. First is the emphasis on integration of subjects to form areas of study. The second, mainly at the secondary school level, is the emphasis on core and elective studies. Changes in content are less marked in the primary sector, though there is a growing emphasis on an awareness and use of technology, sensitivity to the environment and personal development, including values and sexuality (*e.g.* see Beazley, 1984).

The major pressures for change in content have come in the secondary sector. The bases of the pressure appear to stem from the devolution of curriculum development to schools and their communities (albeit within prescribed policy guidelines); decreasing job opportunities for school leavers and a consequential increase in students remaining at school beyond the upper limit for compulsory attendance (see Hughes, 1983); arguments for greater relevance to the post-school needs of adolescents (see Hughes, 1983; Queensland Board of Teacher Education, 1982); arguments that the secondary school curriculum is dominated by the tertiary institutions; minority pressure groups pleading special subjects; and the impact of Special Purpose Programs (described elsewhere in this paper) as part of the Australian Government's Equality and Equity in Education Policy.

The response by schools to these pressures is mainly being made through the elective studies component of the curriculum. This component increases in proportion in the post-compulsory school years. In some states elective studies are divided into those which meet prescribed criteria for structure and rigour and are accepted by the appropriate accrediting authority towards a tertiary entrance score, and those which are developed by schools for the development of students but not eligible for tertiary entrance. Examples of elective subjects developed by schools, which may or may not be eligible for tertiary entrance – depending upon the state, its criteria and practices – are theatre, motor mechanics, career education, transition education (school to work), hostessing, business law, consumer education, media studies, aeronautics, sex education, Australian studies, environmental studies, tourism, and psychology.

Of course, while the elective curriculum has been expanding, the 'Back to the Basics' argument has not abated. Hughes (1983) rebuts this view, counter-arguing that

> While the importance of the basic skills is unquestioned, what students need is not a narrower set of skills, but a much broader and more effective one. The demands of our current and future society are for higher order skills in communication, in mathematics, in acquiring information, in assessing information and in analysing arguments. (p12)

Even the elective curriculum may be a mechanism through which such higher order skills are developed.

The real danger in the elective curriculum is in the integrity base of the knowledge taught. Teachers are not specialist in many of the areas of study they offer and while using 'professionals' on a part-time basis may be a part-solution, it is not the norm for schools.

(iii) *Changes in Pedagogy.*

Changes in pedagogy are required to meet changing aims and objectives and the context in which teaching and learning take place. It is not possible to list all such changes here. Several examples must suffice.

The emphasis upon cognitive skill and attitude development, in addition to acquisition of knowledge and skills, in contemporary statements of aims for schooling requires a major change from the current pedagogical strategies of many teachers (who tend to focus almost exclusively on teaching content and skills). Such a requirement places teachers under stress and if the emphasis is to be given, specialist support services for teachers will be required. For example, the introduction of ROSBA (see Queensland Board of Secondary School Studies, 1978) required teachers to design work programs for accreditation which state the process (or cognitive skill) objectives, content objectives, skill objectives and affective (attitudinal and value) objectives of the program. Further, they were required (except in the case of affective objectives) to specify the criteria for determining how well the objectives were met. The requirements met with widespread criticism and resistance from teachers and the Queensland Board of Secondary School Studies developed a task force of trained teachers to visit schools in the role of consultants. If the legitimacy of a set of stated aims of schooling is accepted, cooperation must be gained from preservice teacher education institutions to incorporate in their programs the rationale for them and appropriate skills to foster their achievement. There is no evidence at the moment that this is happening to any significant degree.

Implementation of a curriculum which emphasises an integrated orientation rather than subject/discipline focus also requires a shift from traditional pedagogy. Again teachers may well require support to generate and test appropriate strategies. Likewise, team teaching requires a break from the popular didactic approach to teaching. This mode of teaching requires a high degree of cooperation in planning, implementation and evaluation. At the primary level it is well addressed in preservice teacher education but virtually ignored at the secondary level.

The advent of the microcomputer is already having a marked impact upon classrooms. If this aid to teaching is to have a profound and long-lasting effect on student learning, then as Ruff (1985) has argued, misconception, mismanagement and misuse by teachers must be avoided. As Ruff warns 'no computer can actually replace a teacher, nor can it be expected to'. (p198) The biggest task ahead is to train teachers in the use of microcomputers as an adjunct to their teaching. This will require them to know the capabilities and limitations of microcomputers and to plan the integration of the microcomputer's appropriate use into their teaching plans.

In the field of distance education, the future uses of Aussat will call upon the design of appropriate instructional strategies which will differ from 'normal' pedagogical practice in correspondence and School of the Air teaching.

The moral emerging from the examples, as mentioned earlier in the paper, is the need to view changes in pedagogy as an integral component of the planning for introducing any curriculum innovation or for the adoption of any new aid to teaching.

(iv) *Changes in Assessment.*

At both primary and secondary levels there is wide recognition of the roles of both formative and summative assessment. This is paralleled by a growing de-emphasis of regular formal examinations in favour of less formal, diagnostic 'on-course' assessment. The movement is more marked in the primary sector. Secondary schools, committed to a form of credentialling have tended to cling on to external examinations as the ultimate form of assessment. Neither Queensland nor the Australian Capital Territory has external examinations. In Queensland such examinations have been totally abolished in favour of school-based assessment since 1970 at year 10 and 1972 at year 12. Other states either have moved or are moving to a combination of school-based assessment and external examinations (see McGaw and Hannan, 1985).

School-based assessment (which may be moderated by one's peers) requires new sets of skills and acceptance of new responsibilities on the part of teachers (particularly if one adapts a form of criterion-referenced assessment as is the current situation in Queensland) and may well place them under stress if they feel inadequate for the change (see Campbell *et al.* 1978). The skills of designing assessment instruments to test stated syllabus objectives, of explicitly stating performance criteria to be applied in assessment, of combining measures of disparate performances to arrive at an overall assessment, of scaling if norm-based criteria are to be used, of working cooperatively with peers to establish 'standards' may be fostered in the short-term through inservice teacher development activities and in the long-term through incorporating their development in pre-service teacher education programs.

(b) *Changes in School Organisations and Settings*

There is a degree of fluidity in school organisations and settings which have significant implications for teacher development and initial teacher education. Among these changes is a movement towards mainstreaming (mentioned earlier in this paper) of all children with other than extreme learning disabilities. Such a movement places an onus upon all teachers to master the skills of learning diagnosis and program and learning materials design, to work with advisors and consultants to become familiar with appropriate referral agencies, and to develop the qualities of understanding and patience.

Another change is extension of open-space and team teaching, well tried at the primary level, to the junior secondary school. Next, in Queensland, at the pilot level, there is a resurgence of the senior college concept developed in Tasmania many years ago. This concept which interfaces the senior secondary school and TAFE program is a challenge to teachers of two disparate traditions to bridge the gap and ensure the continuity of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. The concept of resource centre learning, or schools without walls, is not dead while non-traditional schools appear to be thriving.

Currently there is a question of meeting the needs of adolescents in their earlier years – the middle school (see Bella, 1984, and Power, 1984). In her paper, Bella argues that neither the typical primary school nor the secondary school provides for the unique needs and characteristics of early adolescents. Indeed, the present system of secondary schooling is seen by her as exaggerating the separateness of adolescents. Bella (pp11-12) states that her review of the literature supports the middle school concept with aims

- to service the educational needs of the in-between ages in a school bridging the primary/secondary gap;
- to provide optimum individualisation of curriculum and instruction for a population characterised by great variability;
- to promote continuing progress through phases and levels of the total educational program; and
- to facilitate the optimum use of personnel and facilities available for continuing improvement of schooling. (Bella, 1984, 7)

While there is a high degree of acceptance of the middle school concept in the United Kingdom and the USA, there is no unanimity in Australia. Indeed, a most provocative and revolutionary proposal has emerged in Queensland (Queensland Department of Education, 1985), *viz.* to reorganise the entire school system in three levels, *viz.* Junior School (prescribed to year 3), Intermediate School (years 4 to 10), Senior College, as mentioned above (immediate post-compulsory years). Indeed, pilot projects for such organisation are under-way. The nature of teacher education proposed for the above three levels is outlined (p29) in the above paper. In a subsequent report of a committee to review 987 reactions to the above and other proposals (Queensland Department of Education, 1986, 53-58) it was argued that the Junior School concept be explored further, the Intermediate School concept be rejected and the Senior College be seen as but one form of offering post-compulsory education. Obviously, if all three of the levels as originally proposed were adopted, there would be considerable consequences for teachers.

(c) *Changes in the Locus of Decision-Making*

The most significant contemporary changes in the locus of decision-making are attempts to be seen to leaven the former highly bureaucratic, centralised decision-making processes in two major directions, *viz.* in curriculum development and in community involvement in the school. It is now common for education systems to devolve responsibility for curriculum making (within state and system guidelines) to individual schools and their communities. In the case of schools not large enough to undertake the exercise, system or regional exemplars are available from which to choose. It should be noted, however, that because of the emphasis on core, the real choice for schools is in the elective domain – where they are restricted to the resources available to them. In some instances pilot studies are being run to form clusters of schools to share their specialisations and thus broaden the curriculum offerings within each school in the cluster which, may, of course, include both state and independent schools. A further constraint on the apparent freedom for secondary schools is in the necessity to meet accreditation requirements if elements of the curriculum are to contribute to tertiary selection.

The most fully developed set of policies relating to community involvement have been implemented in the Victorian state education system (see Ministerial Papers 1-4, Education Department, Victoria, 1983). The Ministerial Papers have seen the development of representative school councils responsible for school policy-making in curriculum objectives, resource utilisation and broad organisational policies. The papers have planned for the establishment of centralised support services for the schools and for periodic monitoring of the school's improvement plan drawn up and updated by each school council as the broad canvas for its school's development. There may be some difficulty in some states or some areas of some states, because of sparsity of population and talent, in establishing individual school boards in accord with the Victorian model. Under such circumstances larger areas or regional councils, covering all schools in the grouping, might be developed.

Generating and accepting community involvement in school policy-making is destined to become an imperative of the teacher and school administrator's role. Appropriate studies relating to teacher-parent interaction, and to teacher and parent roles in school policy-making must become part of initial teacher education – extended through subsequent teacher development activities.

(d) *Equality and Opportunity*

Perhaps the most significant development in the professional context of teaching in the western world in recent times has been government funding of specific projects aimed at promoting equality and equity in education. An example of this in Australia is the introduction of special purpose programs from Commonwealth funding to the states and territories by way of the Schools Commission. Such programs are based upon the following set of assumptions:

- all students and youth have the capacity to learn irrespective of culture, class, race, gender or disability, and should through schooling have access to the knowledge, skills and understanding necessary to shape their lives and to participate in shaping the society of which they are a part;
- schooling should support students progressively and consciously to assume responsibility for their lives;
- all citizens have a right to participate in the national democracy, whatever their background or circumstances. This confers on the Commonwealth the obligation to ensure that all students in Australian schools receive a quality education;
- Australia's international commitment to combat discrimination and disadvantage arising from socio-economic circumstances, race, gender or disability, and to protect natural resources, places a particular responsibility on the Commonwealth to ensure that all students have equal access to education and its benefits;
- the nation as a whole should mobilise its educational resources to meet agreed national priorities or needs and to work toward improvements in schooling;
- adequate general resources for schools are a necessary but not sufficient condition for the improvement of educational conditions;
- inequalities within the society and the disadvantages experienced by students require the differential distribution of resources to schools and within schools;
- parents and students should participate in the development of learning programs, in decisions within schools, and in decisions which affect their schools;
- teachers should participate in processes for the development of better schools and improved teacher practices.

(Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1985, 58-59)

The programs are aimed

> to assist system and school authorities:
>
> - in making equitable educational provision for all groups of students;
> - in fostering related forms of school improvement and teacher development; and
> - in responding to issues of national significance, such as the implications of new technologies or of expanded participation in secondary education.
>
> (*op. cit.*, 59)

The precise details of the specific purpose programs funded and proposed for future funding, through the Schools Commission (*i.e.* Equity Programs, School Development Programs and National Priority Programs) are outlined in its publication *Quality and Equality* (1985). A tabulation of the programs is provided in Table 7.

The conditions of funding the Specific Purpose Program include adherence to the principle that programs be developed by the states and territories through consultation with representatives of the school systems, parent and teacher organisations and, where appropriate, students.

Table 7. Specific Purpose Programs

Equity Programs	*School Development Programs*	*National Priority Programs*
Aboriginal education Disadvantaged schools Participation and equity Rural schooling development Special education	Australian community languages and culture Basic learning in primary schools Computer education Parent participation in schooling Professional development	Education centres Education priorities

(Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1985, 76)

The introduction of the equity and school development programs in particular necessitate competencies not currently characteristic of many teachers and whose understanding and acquisition are generally not currently part of either contemporary pre-service teacher education or in-service education programs. The range of such competencies includes program needs assessment, program design and development, program evaluation, submission writing and defence, and cooperative thinking and decision-making. It may be argued by some that such competencies are not essential for all teachers – that maybe these are special skills to be demonstrated by teachers selected and specially trained as either regional consultants or school 'leaders' in the process of program design and evaluation. In the short term this may well be the most expeditious and efficient way in which to move if the full potential of the special purpose programs is to be achieved.

3. The Teacher's Role in a Changing Scene

The emerging social and cultural context of teaching and the consequent changing professional context have implications for the roles teachers must play and for the qualities essential to fulfil them effectively. Perhaps the most significant change in role for teachers is that from a purveyor of knowledge to a facilitator of learning concerned with providing equal opportunity for all students to learn. The over-arching role implies functioning as a learning diagnostician, a curriculum planner, a stimulator of learning, a learning resource consultant, an evaluator of learning materials. It implies acting as an ideas sounding board, an evaluator-critic, an upholder of standards, a remedial educator, a friend confidante and counsellor. (Here it is worthy of note that Andrich *et al.* (1979) quoted four studies which see the teacher's role as embracing more of the parent's role and tending toward that of a community worker.) In addition, the changing scene will require teachers to become translators of the culture who objectively expose conflicts facing society, and mediators between parents and students and between the school and community.

Nixon and Bumbarger (1984) argue that student teachers are '. . . future teachers but their preparation is now. All that can reasonably be expected is that we provide the students with skills and knowledge to meet presently identifiable changes in the roles of teachers'. (p236) The qualities essential for filling the roles specified above have been considered at length by Auchmuty (1980) and many are incorporated in contemporary teacher education programs, but some are becoming increasingly more important. Foremost among these are commitment to a personal philosophy of education; a deep understanding of human development and of the nature and structure of knowledge in general and in appropriate specific domains of the curriculum in particular; an awareness of the nature, values and culture of contemporary society – its rate and directions of change and its continuities; a sensitivity to, and respect for, the culture and traditions of ethnic communities forming part of Australian society. To these may be be added the human relations skills of effective decision-making and people management. It is also increasingly imperative that teachers recognise the validity, and acquire the skills, of parent and community involvement in the decisions affecting schooling. What is being suggested here is that, in addition to being knowledgeable (a given) teachers must become more socially aware, more socially responsible and more socially competent – they must become more 'people oriented'.

Knowledge of, and skills in, a number of technical areas are also essential to fill the role of facilitator of learning and to ensure equality of opportunity to learn. These include a knowledge of, and skills in, curriculum design, implementation and evaluation; competence in a wide range of formative and summative assessment procedures and strategies for criterion-referenced performance and evaluation; skill in establishing interpersonal relationships; knowledge of, and skill in, applying strategies of guidance; knowledge of, and skill in effective collaboration with, appropriate referral agencies. To these should be added competence in teaching in multicultural classrooms; skills in classroom action research and submission preparation; an understanding of, and competence in the use of, contemporary technological aids to teaching and learning. Finally, it is essential that the contemporary teacher and the teacher of the future remain alert to events and issues in the world at large, that they have an awareness of, and skill in using, appropriate interpersonal and community communication strategies, and that their professional behaviour be in accordance with an acceptable code of ethics.

So much for the future professional needs of teachers, if one acknowledges the recent Carnegie Report (Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986) the extent to which teachers will be able to enhance the quality of life in the emerging society will depend not only on their professional development but upon fundamental changes in the school itself. In essence the required changes may be summarised in the words of Tucker and Mandel (1986, 25), 'We must invest teachers with a much greater degree of trust and responsibility to render professional judgements about the most appropriate educational treatments'.

References

Andrich, D., Dymond, W.F. and Punch, K.F. (1979) A Unidimensional Interpretation of the Concept of Teacher Role, *Journal of Experimental Education*, 48 (2), 137-44.

Auchmuty, J.J. (1980) *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education*, AGPS, Canberra.

Battersby, D. (1981) Beginning Teachers: A Review of Research, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 6 (2), 25-38.

Beazley, K.E. (1984) *Education in Western Australia. Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Education in Western Australia*, Education Department, Western Australia, Perth.

Beeson, G. (1982) *Draft Statement - Principles for Program Development for Pre-Service Teacher Education*, Victoria College - Rusden Campus, Melbourne.

Board of Secondary School Studies (1978) *A Review of School-based Assessment in Queensland Secondary Schools*, Board of Secondary School Studies, Brisbane.

Campbell, W.J., Campbell, E.M., Radford, W.C. and Scott, E. (1978) *School-Based Assessments: Aspirations and Achievements of the Radford Scheme in Queensland*, ERDC Report No. 7A, Education Research and Development Committee, Canberra.

Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*, Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, New York.

Combe, C. (1984) *Making the Curriculum Your Own*, Macarthur Institute of Higher Education, Sydney.

Commonwealth Schools Commission (1985) *Quality and Equality*, Schools Commission, Canberra.

Coulter, F. (1971) The Socialization of Male Beginning Teachers into the Teaching Profession. Published PhD Thesis, Monash University.

Coulter, F. (1980) Effects of Student Teaching on Self-Perception, Commitment and Teaching Behaviour, *British Journal of Teacher Education*, 6 (1), 21-8.

Cruickshank, D. (1981) What We Know About Teachers' Problems, *Educational Leadership*, February, 402-5.

Curriculum Development Centre (1980) *Core Curriculum for Australian Schools: What It Is and Why It Is Needed*, Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Education Department, Victoria (1983) *Decision Making in Victorian Education: Ministerial Paper Number 1*, Education Department, Victoria, Melbourne.

Education Department, Victoria (1983) *The School Improvement Plan: Ministerial Paper Number 2*, Education Department, Victoria, Melbourne.

Education Department, Victoria (1983) *The State Board of Education: Ministerial Paper Number 3*, Education Department, Victoria, Melbourne.

Education Department, Victoria (1983) *School Councils: Ministerial Paper Number 4*, Education Department, Victoria, Melbourne.

Fuller, F.F. (1969) Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization, *American Educational Research Journal*, 6 (2), 207-25.

Goodlad, J.I. (1975) *The Dynamics of Educational Change*, McGraw Hill, New York.

Hughes, P. (1983) The Future of Secondary Education - Or, After 1984. In Education Department of Western Australia (1983) *Transition in Transition: Problems, Solutions and the Future*. Report of Transition Education Conference, York, W.A. Education Department of Western Australia, Perth, 1-14.

Jones, B. (1982) *Sleepers Wake! Technology and the Future of Work*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne.

McGaw, B. and Hannan, B. (1985) *Certification in Upper Secondary Education*, Curriculum Development Centre, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Maslow, A.H. (1970) *Motivation and Personality* (rev. ed.), Harper and Row, New York.

Moore, G. (1983) What Teachers Want for Their In-Service Education, *The Educational Magazine*, 40 (3), 16-18.

Nixon, M.T. and Bumbarger, C.S. (1983) Prospective Teachers: Views of Programs and Needs, *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 30 (3), 226-37.

Otto, P.E., Gasson, I.S.H. and Jordan, E. (1979) Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers, *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 7 (1 & 2), 29-33.

Parsons, T.W. (1974) *Achieving Classroom Communication Through Self-Analysis*, Prismatica International, Inc., El Segundo.

Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1981) *The Induction of Beginning Primary Teachers*, Queensland Board of Teacher Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1982) *Secondary Schooling and the World of Work*, Queensland Board of Teacher Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1984) *School Experience in Queensland Pre-Service Teacher Education Programs, 1. Research Report*. Queensland Board of Teacher Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1985) *Project 21: Teachers for the Twenty-first Century - Discussion Paper*, Queensland Board of Teacher Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Board of Teacher Education (1985) *School Experience in Queensland Pre-Service Teacher Education Programs*, Queensland Board of Teacher Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Department of Education (1985) *Education 2000, Issues and Options for the Future of Education in Queensland*, Queensland Department of Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Department of Education (1986) *Report of the Committee of Review: Education 2000 Submissions*, Queensland Department of Education, Brisbane.

Queensland Teachers' Union (1983) Questionnaire on Stress Factors in Teaching, *Queensland Teachers' Journal*, 6 (4), 9-13.

Ramsay, P.D.K. (1979) *Towards a Radical Reassessment of the Selection, Education and Training of Primary School Teachers.* A paper presented at the South Pacific Association of Teacher Educators' Conference, Sydney.

Reynolds, P. and Clark, M.L. (1984) *In-Service Needs of Teachers and Administrators in Western Australian Schools 1983*, Western Australian College of Advanced Education, Perth.

Ruff, T.P. (1985) High Technology in Education: Educating Educators in the Use of Microcomputers, *The Clearing House*, 58 (5), 197-8.

Schools Commission (1981) *Report for the Triennium 1982-84*, Schools Commission, Canberra.

Schuttenberg, E.M. (1983) Preparing the Educated Teacher for the 21st Century, *Journal of Teacher Education*, 34 (4), 14-17.

Scott, E. (1978) Some Alternative Modes for School Experience in Teacher Preparation. In Alsop, G. (ed.) *The Role of the School in Initial Teacher Preparation*, Victorian In-Service Education Committee, Melbourne.

Steinle, J.R. (1981) *Our Schools and Their Purposes: Into the 80s*, Education Department, South Australia, Adelaide.

Taylor, P.H. (1975) A Study of the Concerns of Students on a Postgraduate Certificate in Education Course, *British Journal of Teacher Education*, 1 (2), 151-61.

Tisher, R.P., Fyfield, J.A. and Taylor, S.M. (1979) *Beginning to Teach Volume 2*, Canberra: Education Research and Development Committee, Canberra, Report No. 20.

Tomlinson, D.G., Bowman, N.F., Scott, E., Wasson, M.J. and Weir, D.J. (1984) *Review of the Country Areas Program: Report of the Committee Appointed by the Commonwealth Schools Commission*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Tough, A. (1971) *The Adults' Learning Projects*, Research in Education Series 1, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Tucker, M. and Mandel, D. (1986) The Carnegie Report – A Call for Redesigning the Schools, *Phi Delta Kappan*, 68 (1), 24-7.

Turney, C., Cairns, L.G., Eltis, K.J., Hatton, N., Thew, D.M. and Wright, R. (1982) *Supervisor Development Programmes – Role Handbook*, Sydney University Press, Sydney.

Warner, D. and Lipke, I. (1981) Towards a Systematic Approach to Inservice Education for Teachers, *Unicorn*, 7 (2), 180-90.

Van Cleaf, D.W. (1982) Student Variable: Adjust for Pre-Service Teacher Needs, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 7 (2), 6-11.

NEW PATTERNS AND DIRECTIONS IN THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHER

Geoffrey W. Beeson

In this chapter, recent trends in the professional development of teachers in the United States and the United Kingdom are outlined with reference to the relevant research and development literature. This is followed by a summary of recent developments in Australian teacher education. Attention is drawn to several similar trends in the three countries including a greater recognition of the relationship between the quality of education in schools and the quality of teaching, the importance of regarding teacher professional development as a continuum, an increased emphasis on in-service education, and tighter constraints on resources. Some future possible directions are discussed in the light of these trends and current and emerging needs.

The last two decades have seen first, increased attention given to the development of effective pre-service teacher education programs, followed by a growing recognition of the importance of arranging opportunities for the continuing professional development of the teacher. This trend has been evident in the United States and the United Kingdom as well as in Australia. While matters relating to initial teacher education still occupy the majority of space in the teacher education literature a growing emphasis is being placed on induction and in-service education.

Recent Trends in the United States

In the United States, there is an impressive amount of literature reporting research in teacher education. In a recent review of pre-service teacher education, Koehler (1985) examined research in six categories: studies of the skills and attitudes of teacher education students; studies of the skills and attitudes of practising teachers that reflect on their pre-service education; studies of teacher educators; studies of institutions; evaluations of teacher education programs and methods; studies of institutions; evaluations of teacher education programs and methods; research reviews, analyses, and syntheses. Amongst the particular issues Koehler identified for future research and development were investigations of the processes of teacher development, and the investigation of ways of providing student teachers with frameworks in which to place the various techniques and strategies of teaching to facilitate recall and use in later teaching situations. The latter suggestion arose out of the problems facing teacher educators of how to teach skills, attitudes, and thought processes for which the students do not yet perceive a need. Looked at another way, this problem may be addressed by arranging a better articulation between pre-service programs and the full time teaching in schools, and by developing more effective provision for the continuing professional development of teachers.

The Research and Development Agenda in Teacher Education (Hall, Hord and Brown 1980) was a national project designed to identify and develop priorities for crucial, researchable issues in teacher education. It resulted from an increased national awareness of, and concern about issues in teacher education, combined with the impetus for all constituent role groups to collaborate in addressing the issues. It was organised around two dimensions: the teacher education continuum which represented the consensus of the planning committee that teacher education should be viewed as a continuing process of developing knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviours throughout the course of professional life, and seven topic areas: content, process, context, professionals as learners, collaboration, change/dissemination, and research methodology. However, the papers which contributed to the development of the research and development agenda were organised only around the seven topic areas.

Some six years later another national project in the form of a special conference with a similar purpose was planned to develop recommendations for future directions in research, practice and policy development in teacher education (Hall *et al.* 1985). In this latter project, the concept of a continuum of teacher education was much more strongly evident. Papers were presented in the three major areas of pre-service, induction, and in-service teacher education. In each of these areas practice recommendations, research recommendations, policy recommendations, and critical warnings were formulated. Furthermore, in contrast to the previous conference, participants in this conference included chief state school officers, legislators, school superintendents, as well as staff from the teacher education institutions. Finally, three major areas of unanimous agreement were identified as a result of the conference: (a) that teacher education should be viewed as occurring across the professional continuum; (b) that improvement in teacher education is directly tied to improvement in the conditions and status of teaching; and (c) that improving teacher education requires the collaboration of policy makers, teacher educators, teachers and researchers to develop a shared language and understanding.

This shift in conference participation, in level of agreement, and in emphasis between the two conferences is indicative of the recent more general shift of focus from pre-service education to the continuing professional development of the teacher. It should be noted that the main component of this shift is a greater emphasis on the importance of the induction and in-service phases rather than a decrease in attention to initial preparation.

Howey and Vaughan (1983) recently described the state of professional development in the United States as being in a state of flux. They argued that pressure was growing to adopt in-service practices that were more school-focused, classroom-relevant, and collaboratively planned and implemented. Despite the declining resources available for education, they expressed some optimism, one factor being the increased knowledge about teaching that recent research and development had provided.

On the other hand, debate concerning preparation of teachers continues, fuelled by considerable community dissatisfaction with standards of learning outcome in schools (see, for example, National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Some recent proposals have revived debate on the desirability of extended programs of teacher preparation, along with other structural and curricular reforms (Smith 1980; Joyce and Clift 1984). A small number of five-year pre-service programs are in operation at present, including those at the University of Kansas and the University of New Hampshire, evidently with promising results (Egbert 1984). At the other end of the spectrum, one state has accepted an alternative route of entry to the profession, through which college graduates who meet certain requirements may be hired as provisional teachers. During their first year of teaching the new recruits are required to take 200 hours of teacher education studies, work under the supervision of a teacher for 20 days, and pass several evaluations (Jaschik 1986). Further, far-reaching structural changes, including the abolition of major studies in education in undergraduate degrees, are proposed in the recent Report of the Carnegie Forum's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986). In its report, the Forum makes very clear the connection between quality in teacher education and quality in schooling, a matter which is taken up again later in this paper.

Developments in the United Kingdom

A number of new developments concerning in-service education in Britain occurred in the early 1970s. Perhaps the most significant of these was the spread of teachers' centres, for which the fundamental rationale was local curriculum development work in which teachers were involved. Other developments included the use of television as a medium, the offering of special extended courses, and a greater emphasis on school-based activities (Henderson 1978). More recently, the term 'school focused' has been used to describe activities that focus on the interests, needs, and problems of a particular school, and hence not only focus on the needs of individual teachers, but on matters which need the co-ordinated effort of a group of staff. School-focused in-service education is seen as a more effective means of promoting lasting change in schools (Bolam 1982).

A wide variety of in-service activities has been in evidence, including those initiated and conducted within schools, those conducted by local education authorities, and others conducted under collaborative arrangements with consultants outside the schools, including staff from higher education institutions (Donoghue 1981). An area of concern at present is that of making a collaborative model of staff development work. The concern reflects the view that unless teachers feel they are contributing to their own professional development, they are unlikely to be committed to take part. Furthermore, there is general agreement amongst practitioners that in-service education needs can be more effectively and validly identified if the teachers involved participate collaboratively in the process (Hartley 1985).

A Review conducted by a group of member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (Bolam 1978) found agreement on three main reasons for the growth in the commitment of national governments to in-service education and training, namely: it is inherently important that teachers should continue their personal and professional education; the speed and nature of technological, economic, cultural, social, and political change dictate that teachers need to review and modify teaching methods and curricula; and, in the context of a reduced need for new teachers, the in-service education needs of a stable teaching force are especially important. The Review also reported broad agreement that in-service education and training could and should make an important contribution to the resolution of problems associated with several areas of activity in education, including the needs of special school populations such as multiethnic communities and disadvantaged rural communities, the needs associated with particular subjects, notably science and mathematics, and the new demands on teachers caused by the radically changing nature of school-community relationships.

Recent initiatives by the national government in the United Kingdom have been influenced by the national concern over quality of schooling and standards of achievement. A recent government White Paper (Department of Education and Science, 1985) states government aims to 'raise standards at all levels of ability' and to 'secure the best possible return from the resources which are invested in education'. A number of actions to be taken by the government in relation to these aims are set out in the White Paper, including reform of public examinations 'in the interests of the curriculum and standards', making the in-service training of teachers more effective 'through new financial arrangements', and encouraging schools to do more to 'fulfil the vital function of preparing all young people for work'. These and other actions have resulted in greater central control over all stages of teacher education. For in-service education they have led to greater centralisation of funding, greater demands including increased administrative complexity at the local level, and requirements to adhere to national priorities (Graham 1986). For pre-service education, the establishment of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education has meant that institutions offering courses of initial teacher preparation will be accredited to do so only if the courses meet certain criteria, as assessed by Her Majesty's Inspectors. These criteria are based on the government White Paper *Teaching Quality* (Department of Education and Science, 1983) and include length and nature of studies, selection and admission to courses, training and experience of staff.

Recent Australian Trends

The growth of teacher education in Australia in the early 1970s, coupled with the injection of Commonwealth Government funds during this period, produced a burst of innovatory activity in teacher education programs. A survey by Turney and his colleagues in 1975 (Turney 1977) revealed the astonishing total of 703 innovations. These covered a wide range from minor changes to completely new programs and included school-based programs, innovations in methodology, evaluations, teaching skill development, support for teachers in the early years of teaching, a variety of collaborative arrangements with schools, and many others. The vast majority of these innovations were involved with pre-service programs. This reflects the situation in Australia in general, where studies relating to initial preparation predominate, even when the context of the research could as easily relate to continuing professional development, as in the case of the development of practical teaching skills (Hewitson 1979).

Greater attention was given to the in-service component of professional development following implementation of recommendations of the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission (Karmel 1973). A great variety of innovations in in-service education resulted, including programs of widely varying content, length, and degree of formality initiated by employers, teachers, and other relevant groups (Skilbeck, Evans and Harvey 1977). In addition, in-service activities were further facilitated through Commonwealth funded education centres. This period was one of marked increase in opportunities for professional development for teachers. Prior to the 1970s, provision of in-service education was minimal, despite the need of teachers to cope with the flood of new curricula which entered the schools during the late 1960s and early 1970s (Batten 1979).

Attention was given to evaluating the professional development programs of that time (Batten 1979). Other research has examined teachers' perceptions of in-service education (Campbell 1975), materials development in particular curriculum areas (Fensham *et al.* 1974), and needs of teachers in their early years of teaching (Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor 1978; McArthur 1981). These last-mentioned studies are of particular interest in that they focus attention on the relationship between the pre- and in-service stages of a teacher's professional development, as well as on the needs of the teacher at a particular stage. McArthur's longitudinal study of a group of secondary school teachers from the final year of initial preparation to the fifth year of teaching highlighted the 'reality shock' which occurs as a result of the transition from student to teacher in the first year of teaching. As a result of the study, McArthur made a number of suggestions for bridging the gap between pre-service training and initial teaching experience and for improving the practical aspects of initial teaching appointments. These included: more practical teaching in the final training year, preferably on an extended basis in the one school, a greater variety of work experience throughout the whole of pre-service teacher education, and a continuing relationship between the training institution and first appointment. He also suggested that beginning teachers should be given reduced teaching loads, should not be given the difficult and unwanted classes, and should be assigned to experienced teachers for support and guidance during the first year.

A National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980) was established by the Commonwealth Minister for Education in 1978. Its terms of reference required it to make recommendations '. . . on any changes which might assist in achieving improved teaching and learning in Australian schools and pre-schools . . .' (p.xxi), taking into account a number of social and educational factors, and to state its assumptions about the objectives of education in Australia for the following twenty-five years. The Inquiry addressed a wide range of issues concerning selection, pre-service preparation, induction, and in-service education.

The Inquiry considered teacher education to be a process of continuing professional development, commencing with pre-service education, proceeding through induction in the first years of teaching, and then continuing into a period of on-going professional development. Consistent with this view, and with the increasing content demands of pre-service courses, the Inquiry recognised the need to limit knowledge and skills which pre-service education should attempt to encompass and proposed a core of studies and learning experiences which should be required of all students. Eight areas of study were identified, but the determination of specific content, approaches and experiences and the balancing and sequencing of studies was to be left to the institutions involved and the profession itself. The Inquiry also recommended that courses should include training in methods of adapting education provisions to a wide range of individual differences among students, provide information on the support and other specialist services available and should give attention to the development of appropriate skills and attitudes for teachers in a multicultural society.

Further, the Inquiry recommended a four-year minimum period of preparation for all teachers, and that graduate diploma in education courses should be extended in length to a minimum of forty weeks. It paid particular attention to the nature and organisation of practical experience and made recommendations and suggestions designed to improve the effectiveness of this crucial part of teacher education. These included the need for clarity of objectives and of roles of participants, a planned program of gradually increasing responsibility appropriately distributed over time, and training of, and time allowance for supervising teachers in the schools.

The Inquiry took the view that over the next twenty-five years the major means of improving the quality of teaching will be the continuing professional development of teachers. This was argued on the basis of much reduced intakes of new teachers into the profession, continuing technological, economic, cultural, social and political change, the rapid expansion of knowledge, and the changing nature of the teacher's role. It was considered that in-service professional development could best be achieved within a framework planned and organised at the school level, that the ultimate responsibility for continuing professional development rests with the teacher but that the obligation to participate in in-service education could be supported by various incentives, and that employers have complementary responsibility to assist the teacher with professional development. Several recommendations were made aimed at facilitating and increasing professional development, including paid release for one term after every seven years of service, participation in a minimum of five days of in-service education outside school hours each year, and increased funding.

The Inquiry considered teacher education, research and development in Australia to be deficient in most areas. It formulated a list of priorities which included contextual research (*e.g.* investigation of community expectations of education; documentation and analysis of the changing roles of teachers) and program research (*e.g.* longitudinal studies of the socialisation of teachers; evaluation of the relative effectiveness of various forms of in-service education), and recommended an annual budget to enable a co-ordinated program of research and development in teacher education to be mounted.

During the period 1977-80 the governments of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia and South Australia commissioned inquiries into teacher education at state level. Although there was some variation in the terms of reference for the inquiries, significantly there was general agreement amongst the national and state inquiries on several key matters, including the continuing nature of teacher development, the need to take account of the effects of technological change and the changing nature of society, the need to give more attention to the development of literacy and numeracy in schools, and the need for the teaching of community languages and intercultural perspectives. In particular, there was agreement that the quality of education was inescapably related to effective programs of continuing teacher development. Moreover, a recurring theme was that professional development should be closely related to the development, implementation, and evaluation of the school curriculum (Coulter and Ingvarson 1985).

Coulter and Ingvarson (1985) conducted a study of in-service education as part of a review of teacher education requested by the Commonwealth Government and to be carried out jointly by the Commonwealth Schools Commission and the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission. They identified a recent decline in in-service education provision, despite an increased need arising from changes in the career patterns of teachers, changing and increasing expectations of the teacher's role, and changes in education priorities and the emergence of new curricula associated with these priorities. Factors responsible for this decline included a reduction in the overall funding available and a lack of co-ordination at the national and state levels. Coulter and Ingvarson also reviewed the outcomes of the recent state and national inquiries. They found that little action had been taken as a direct result of the National Inquiry, apart from in the area of Aboriginal education. With respect to the state inquiries, they found that few major changes in teacher education policy or practice had occurred as a direct result of the various inquiries, and that, in general terms, much more had been accomplished at the pre-service level than at the in-service level.

The Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education (Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission and Commonwealth Schools Commission 1986) included an examination of developments in teacher education programs relevant to the Commonwealth priorities in education, including such areas as community languages, mathematics and science, education of girls, and integration of handicapped children into regular schools, and reported considerable activity in these areas. The Review recommended the establishment of two major pilot programs of intensive in-service training, one aimed at improving the quality of teaching in schools with a high proportion of students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, and one for primary and junior secondary mathematics and science teachers aimed at improving girls' opportunities in these subjects. It also recommended the development and provision of programs for the preparation of Aboriginal teachers to teach in traditionally oriented Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. The Review argued that there was a need to develop more effective practices of in-service education. It endorsed the principle of school-based in-service programs and set out a number of guidelines on which such programs should be based.

Emerging Patterns in the Professional Development of Teachers

As the above discussion indicates, clear trends in belief about teacher education in Australia have become evident in recent years, the major directions being parallel to developments in the United States and the United Kingdom. These trends may be summarised as follows:

- teacher education should be viewed as a continuum of on-going professional development;
- there is a strong link between the quality of education and the quality of teaching. A sub-set of this relationship is the link between curriculum development and teacher development;
- the professional development of teachers is a joint responsibility of governments, employing authorities, the profession and the individual teacher;
- changes in school and society, and the reduced influx of new teachers into the profession mean that particular attention must be paid to the provision of effective in-service education if the quality of teaching is to be improved;
- school-focused in-service education is potentially a powerful method for improving the quality of teaching;
- collaboration and co-ordination between providers of professional development programs, employing authorities, and teachers themselves are essential if professional development programs are to achieve the desired aims. In particular, effective liaison between higher education institutions, as providers of pre-service education, and schools is crucial;

- within pre-service education, the provision of effective periods for practical experience is fundamental to the preparation of the new teacher;
- there is a need for teacher education activities at the pre-service and in-service stages which focus on special areas of need;
- continuing research and development in teacher education are essential.

These trends in belief will continue to influence the shape of teachers' professional development in the coming years. However, the extent of that influence, and, the level of progress in improving professional development opportunities for teachers, will depend on whether the very considerable existing obstacles can be overcome. These obstacles include limitations on available resources, difficulties in realising a satisfactory level of co-ordination between the parties involved, including governments and state departments of education, and difficulties inherent in some of the desirable approaches to teacher development, for example, effective collaboration between providers and teachers. Achieving effective collaboration is doubly difficult in a climate of restricted resources and applies both to pre-service and to in-service phases.

With respect to pre-service education, a particular problem is the need to collaborate on the provision of practical teaching experiences. School-based programs (Turney 1977) offer one way of improving practical experience and the perceived relevance of pre-service programs as a whole, but such programs have the difficulty of tending to require high staffing levels. As a consequence school-based pre-service programs are far less numerous at the present time than they were during the 1970s. What is needed now is a sustained creative effort to develop new arrangements between schools and higher education institutions which meet the professional development objectives and are consistent with the resources currently available. The extension of initial professional training to encompass a period of continuous teaching may hold some promise in this respect. An extension of the graduate diploma in education course from one year to two in order to allow an extended period as a probationary teacher is, perhaps, the most obvious suggestion in this direction. This suggestion is not new and its adoption could result in 'sandwich' courses (Russell and Hughes 1974) or two-year part-time arrangements. Implementation of such a suggestion could help overcome some current deficiencies in pre-service programs and ease the new teacher's induction into the full professional role.

A number of important advantages would be gained from the development of pre-service programs containing significant commonality in teacher preparation across the school age range. Such a move assumes undergraduate courses of the same length (four years) for all teachers. However, the advantages would be that it would allow students to postpone decisions concerning their area of professional specialisation (primary, middle school, upper secondary, and, in some cases, TAFE) until part way through the course, it would reduce the retraining effort needed in cases where teachers are required to teach at year levels different from those for which they were specifically prepared, and it would have an integrating effect on the profession as a whole. Although there are obstacles in the way of common course length at present, this suggestion is worth pursuing, perhaps initially in the form of pilot programs.

Because of rapid social, technological and educational changes and advances in the development of knowledge, there is also a continuing need for activities, including award and non-award courses, to enable teachers to up-date knowledge in their own subject areas, and to develop familiarity with and competence in new methodologies and new curricula. In keeping with community expectations and government priorities, a continuing feature of professional development in the future is likely to be activities focusing in areas of social concern, including community languages, education for girls, integration of the handicapped in regular schools, and community participation.

Coulter and Ingvarson (1985, 143), argue that a basic principle of in-service education is that it is '. . . a vehicle for enhancing the autonomy and professional self-esteem of teachers as well as a means of improving the level of teaching skill and competence'. Consistent with this view is the application of techniques of self-evaluation and clinical supervision to school-based professional development. Self-evaluation is primarily a feedback mechanism, to be used as a means of improving the quality of learning and teaching with the most important audience being the teacher himself or herself. Strategies of self-evaluation involve teachers applying techniques to '. . . examine systematically their own progress, to monitor its effectiveness, and to provide information which will help them change direction when necessary' (Groundwater-Smith and Nicoll 1980, 89). The emphasis is on formative evaluation through a planned systematic collection of data about the teaching learning environment and events within it. Clinical supervision, despite its title, is a constructive process whereby teachers critically examine their own or another's teaching. It involves the teacher using a collaborating colleague as 'another pair of eyes' systematically to collect data on one or more aspects of what occurs in the classroom (Smyth, Dickie and Tinning 1986). Hibburt (1983) has experimented with the adaptation of clinical supervision to the 'self-supervision' of beginning trade teachers through the use of audio-tape recordings. Both self-evaluation techniques and clinical supervision have been available for some years but have received relatively little attention. They are worthy of further exploration as vehicles for continued professional development. Both approaches have the advantages of being non-coercive, classroom based, non-judgemental of teachers or students as to what is 'good' or 'bad', and they both allow teachers to monitor usefully their own practice at the level of individual classrooms and students.

Another promising approach aimed at improving the quality of school learning and teaching was developed during a two year project following earlier pilot studies (Baird and Mitchell 1986). The project involved a group of teachers and classes of students in a single high school and was based on recent local research on how people go about learning. It was concerned with having students become more willing to accept responsibility for their own learning. There were three aspects: increasing students' knowledge of what learning is and how it occurs, increasing students' awareness of learning progress, and improving their control of learning. The project involved collaboration between teachers, academics and students, and, in spite of the time and energy needed on the part of those involved, the outcomes have been encouraging.

Finally, continuing research and development in teacher education are needed to assist our understanding of the variables involved, to identify areas of need, and to evaluate progress. Good research illuminates good teaching, and this is an area we cannot afford to neglect under pressure of financial constraints. It is also true that the mere identification of needs, deficiencies, and alternative approaches is not sufficient to ensure improvement. Especially at a time of very real limitations on resources, considerable ingenuity and a determination to achieve progress are required on the part of all involved - governments, employing authorities, the profession, and individual teachers.

References

Baird, J.R. and Mitchell, I.J. (eds.) (1986) *Improving the Quality of Teaching and Learning*, The Monash University Printery, Melbourne.

Batten, M. (1979) *Report of a National Evaluation of the Development Program*, Schools Commission, Canberra.

Bolan, R. (1978) *Innovations in the In-Service Education and Training of Teachers*, OECD, Paris.

Bolam, R. (1982) *School-Focused In-Service Training*, Heinemann, London.

Campbell, W.J. *et al.* (1975) *Being a Teacher in Australian State Government Schools*, AACRDE Report No. 5, AGPS, Canberra.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*. Report of the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, Washington, DC.

Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission and Commonwealth Schools Commission (1986) *Improving Teacher Education*. Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education, Canberra.

Coulter, F. and Ingvarson, L. (1986) *Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling: Roles and Responsibilities*. A Report to the Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Department of Education and Science (1983) *Teaching Quality*, Cmnd. 8836 HMSO, London.

Department of Education and Science (1985) *Better Schools*, Cmnd 9469 HMSO, London.

Donoghue, C. (ed.) (1981) *In-Service: The Teacher and the School*, Kogan Page, London.

Egbert, R.L. (1985) The practice of preservice teacher education, *Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (1), 16-22.

Fensham, P.J., Northfield, J.R. and Driscoll, D.R. (1974) ASTEP - A model for developing curriculum materials in teacher education, *South Pacific Journal for Teacher Education*, 2 (3), 5-11.

Graham, J. (1986) Centralisation of power in the new INSET funding, *British Journal of In-Service Education*, 13 (1), 5-9.

Groundwater-Smith, S. and Nicoll, V. (1980) *Evaluation in the Primary School*, Ian Novak, Sydney.

Hall, G.E., Hord, S.M. and Brown, G. (1980) *Exploring Issues in Teacher Education: Questions for Future Research*, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Austin, Texas.

Hall, G.E. *et al* (1985) Beyond the looking glass. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (Whole Number 1).

Hartley, D. (1985) Staff development in Scotland, *British Journal of In-Service Education*, 11 (3), 133-7.

Henderson, E. (1978) *The Evaluation of In-Service Teacher Training*, Croom Helm, London.

Hewitson, M. (ed.) (1979) *Research into Teacher Education: The Practical Teaching Skills*, ERDC Report No. 19, AGPS, Canberra.

Hibburt, D.W. (1978) *The Transition of Tradesmen from Industry to Classroom*, Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, La Trobe University.

Howey, K.R. and Vaughan, J.C. (1983) Current patterns of staff development. In G.A. Griffin (ed.) *Staff Development*. 82nd Yearbook of the NSSE, Chicago.

Jaschik, S. (1986) Concern voiced over N.J. plan to use 'alternate route' to certify teachers, *Chronicles of Higher Education*, 4 June, 1986.

Joyce, B. and Clift, R. (1984) The Phoenix agenda: essential reform in teacher education, *Educational Researcher*, 13 (4), 5-18.

Karmel, P. (Chairman) (1973) *Schools in Australia*. Report of the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission, AGPS, Canberra.

Koehler, V. (1985) Research on preservice teacher education, *Journal of Teacher Education*, 13 (1), 23-30.

McArthur, J. (1981) *The First Five Years of Teaching*, ERDC Report No. 30, AGPS, Canberra.

National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, National Commission on Excellence in Education, Washington, DC.

National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980) *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education*, AGPS, Canberra.

Russell, N.A. and Hughes, P.W. (1974) The graduate diploma in education as a two-year sandwich course: a scheme and a critique, *The South Pacific Journal for Teacher Education*, 1 (3), 33-8.

Skilbeck, M., Evans, G. and Harvey, J. (1977) *In-Service Education and Training - Australian Innovations*, Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Smith, B.O. (1980) *A Design for a School of Pedagogy*, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC.

Smyth, J., Dickie, B. and Tinning, R. (1986) Research-as-practice: experiences in a graduate course for experienced teachers, *Higher Education Research and Development*, 5 (2), 147-60.

Tisher, R.P., Fyfield, J.A. and Taylor, S.M. (1978) *Beginning to Teach, Vol. 1*, ERDC Report No. 15, AGPS, Canberra.

Turney, C. (ed.) (1977) *Innovation in Teacher Education*, Sydney University Press, Sydney.

THEME 2:
THE SCHOOL

Professional Development: The School
Christine E. Deer

Beginning School-Focused Development Programs
Ken J. Eltis

Professional Development Through Supervision
Dawn M. Thew

Professional Development:
The Role and Needs of the School Principal
Judith D. Chapman

Professional Development Through Participation in
School-Focused Curriculum Development and Implementation
Marelle Harisun

Professional Development Through School Level Evaluation
Neil Russell

Professional Development Through Materials
Production and Implementation
Colin J. Marsh

Professional Development Through Parent-
Teacher-Community Interaction
David Pettit and Yve Willich

Action Research and Professional Development
David H. Tripp

Professional Development Through
Studying Teacher Behaviour
Michael J. Dunkin

Professional Development Through Participation
in Organisation Development
Bill Mulford

INTRODUCTION: THEME 2
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE SCHOOL

Christine E. Deer

All the papers in this theme include an historical perspective in their discussion showing how important the school has become as a focus for professional development. Since about the mid-seventies, with a reduction in the demand for new teachers there has been a shift in emphasis from preservice to inservice education of teachers in the literature of teacher education. There has also been increased emphasis on the school as the focus for this inservice education rather than on agents and planned activities external to the school. As Chapman writes, there are now calls:

> for a more integrated approach to professional development which establishes the learning community of the school as the major context for professional development and the collegial relationships of all members of a staff as the principal medium for professional growth.

The papers show various ways in which this more integrated approach to professional development is taking place with concern for the individual teacher, for groups of teachers within a school or in a network of schools and for the school as a whole. In her paper on 'Professional Development Through Supervision', Dawn Thew reports on Power's (1983) work of four types of differing developmental needs in a teacher's career. These are the induction needs in the first years of teaching or immediately following appointment to a new position; the extension needs early in a career or in mid-career when serving in a promotions position; refreshment needs as a result of teaching a new class or age range or repetitious professional experience and finally conversion needs related to prospective internal or external redeployment, anticipated promotion or a period of ante-retirement. Each of these types of needs can be filled by school-focused professional development.

The papers point to the need for teachers to participate in the planning of their professional growth opportunities whether they exist for the individual teacher, a group of teachers in the one school such as all Year 7 teachers or all the geography teachers, for a whole school group or for a network of schools. The process of planning for professional development, as well as the implementation of such programs, is all part of school-focused professional development that allows it to offer so much. Bill Mulford's paper on organisation development strongly emphasises these aspects. Reflective analysis of the process of development, implementation and evaluation of professional development programs is vital to their continued success in achieving desired goals. Wherever possible these programs would involve students, parents and other people related to the well-being of the school community. Marelle Harisun documents clearly the South Australian experience in school-focused professional development while David Pettit and Eve Willich provide a valuable Victorian case study of professional development based on a partnership between teachers and parents. The latter recognise the value of joint development of such programs, that is, the ownership of the program belonging to all participants, and the necessity for the participants to be regarded as equals.

School-focused curriculum evaluation is being practised more often as a result of the grants that have been made available to schools by both Federal and State governments. The Schools Commissions Innovations and Disadvantaged Schools Programs have been invaluable in supporting this form of professional development as evaluation becomes part of the program. Neil Russell reviews the changes that have influenced the nature of teacher evaluation roles in the school. He goes on to develop a clearly explained list of evaluation processes for teachers to use as they further this form of professional development.

Colin Marsh discusses the use of materials development and implementation as a means of professional development drawing on Hoyle's (1982) analogy of the restricted professional or highly competent technician and the extended professional or teacher. In contrast, is Mick Dunkin's paper which discusses ways of identifying the skills of pedagogy and of using teacher-pupil interaction schemes as a means of improving the skills of pedagogy. This paper addresses issues of professional development at the micro or classroom level.

Finally, David Tripp looks at professional development through enquiry, moving to the realms of action research. The current issues in action research as a means of teacher development are concerned to link theory and practice, to facilitate enquiry and to raise critical consciousness.

Throughout all these papers there is great stress on talking over the issues involved in school-focused professional development. Talking with fellow teachers, with the school executive, with students and parents where appropriate and with other members of the school community such as clerical and ground staff who may have a part to play. School-focused professional development is seen as a cooperative exercise that needs time for planning and discussion. These processes are themselves part of professional development serving to break down the isolation of the single teacher alone in his or her classroom with a group of students. Planning what is needed for the individual, the group or for the whole school calls for more sharing of ideas than has happened in the past. This sharing has enormous potential as so much expertise can be pooled and reviewed. The papers in this theme provide many ideas for realising this potential.

BEGINNING SCHOOL-FOCUSED DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Ken J. Eltis

Having noted a change in emphasis in professional development programs from a concentration on teacher needs to a focus on school needs, the author examines reasons why teachers and schools have been slow to move into school-focused development programs. The major part of this article examines approaches which will enhance the prospects of conducting successful school-focused development programs. The recommendations presented are based on the findings of a major research study conducted in secondary schools in Sydney.

Why Get Involved in School-Focused Development Programs?

From Teacher to School

Since the mid-1970s the focus of attention in teacher education has shifted from an earlier preoccupation with the development of effective pre-service programs for teachers to the importance of continuing education as a way of sustaining teachers' professional growth. Recent reports have emphasised the vital role in-service programs can play in meeting not just teachers' individual professional needs, but also in catering for school or system needs. There is international agreement on the urgent need for in-service activities to be more relevant to teachers' jobs and to the pressing needs of schools as organisations. It is now acknowledged that the traditional practice of having individual teachers attend courses provided by outside agencies away from the school, while valuable, is not likely to promote lasting change in schools (Bolam 1982a). It would seem that increasingly it can be expected that, as attention focuses more and more on the school as the key unit for educational improvement or change, staff development activities will to a large extent concentrate on and be pursued in the workplace (Goodlad 1974). In various states of Australia we are now seeing the introduction of Total School Development Programs to turn into reality such phrases as 'the autonomous school' (Dutch School Council 1979), 'the problem-solving school' (Bolam 1981), 'the school of the future' (Joyce *et al.* 1983), and 'school renewal' (Massey 1981).

Noting that no single aspect of the Schools Commissions' Professional Development Program has been received with such acclaim as the move toward school-based and school-focused activities, Power (1983) has suggested a number of major reasons why this shift in emphasis in teacher development should have taken place:

- collaboration by teachers and systematic planning of activities aimed at identifying and tackling problems and needs of the schools can contribute to their professional development as well as to organisational growth;
- the professional development of teachers is generally more effective if it occurs in work group;
- teacher development activities in a school-based, problem-solving format capitalise on the collective experience and clinical insights of teachers, and is in harmony with what is known about adult learning and development;
- school-focused development represents a workable, low-cost option for teacher development in a period of economic constraint.

To these reasons at least one other can be added which is particularly important at the present time. Schools have reached a point where teachers see only very limited opportunities for promotion or a change in responsibilities (France 1981). Involvement in 'across-the-school' development programs can present teachers with a rich source of experiences which should contribute to their own professional development, if such experiences encourage them to use their talents and have positive, tangible outcomes in the form of school improvement.

Has the Shift in Focus From Teacher to School Been Realised?

It has to be said that, despite the compelling good reasons for the support of school-focused development programs, action on a large scale has not resulted. Unfortunately, the complexity of the tasks involved when school staffs as a whole and/or groups of teachers within schools critically appraise the situation with a view to setting up action programs to meet identified needs or clearly established goals has been severely underestimated (Bolam 1982b; Batten 1979).

The underlying causes of possible teacher resistance to the introduction of school-focused development programs need to be understood. A major concern for teachers has been that they might see a curtailing of traditional in-service they have known and appreciated as meeting more personal goals (Bolam 1982a). A further problem has been that the pursuit of school-based activities has implied for many teachers that in-service might be expected to happen *only* in schools. For this reason, the term school-focused is now preferred. Howey (1980) has offered the following definition:

> School-focused in-service can be defined as those continuing education activities which focus upon the interests, needs and problems directly related to one's role and responsibilities in a specific school site. These forms of in-service focus not only on individual teachers' concerns and needs, but on matters which demand the coordinated efforts of several, if not all, persons in a specific school setting. These forms of in-service commonly call for changes in the organisational structure and programmatic nature of a school. (p17)

While this definition gives considerable clarification concerning the nature and goals of school-focused development programs, it also highlights the complex nature of school-focused activities. It raises the question of whether busy teachers in schools are able to cope with such demands unless they have support available to them and are given adequate time for productive involvement (Baker and Sikora 1981).

It should also be said that perhaps teachers are not used to working collaboratively to establish a successful agenda of activities considered appropriate for a particular school. They are more used to working in isolation, concentrating almost exclusively on their classroom teaching and fostering the learning of pupils for whom they are directly responsible (Dillon-Peterson 1981). The day-to-day pressures associated with being an innovative and stimulating classroom teacher may represent for many the dominant priority, leaving no time for involvement in more broadly-based school development programs.

Finally, some schools, or rather their principals, may be apprehensive about any kind of program based on the premise that present practices could be less than perfect. The term 'school improvement' can carry with it the connotation that 'all is not well'. Principals and their staffs need to feel reassured that school improvement does

> . . . not imply a deficiency model but rather an 'orderly tuning' process required of all schools and their staffs on a continuing basis. While school improvement implies 'change' [and that word also arouses nervousness in some – *my addition*] it should become part of the responsible on-going operation of schools.
>
> (Linden Courter & Ward 1983, p186)

Refining the Process of 'Improving' Schools

Clearly, teachers need help to build up their expertise in working with other staff members to analyse the context in which they work, establish priorities for attention, and devise action programs which are carefully monitored for their impact. Without such support, we cannot assume that school-focused development programs will automatically lead to school improvement or change. As Power (1983) has put it: 'If teachers take part in programs specifically purporting to meet their teaching needs which were inadequately planned and clumsily executed by their immediate colleagues then it is unlikely that the quality of their teaching will be enhanced'. (p3) The relevance of this comment can be extended to apply to the total school context.

In devising school-focused programs note should be taken of the accumulating body of research pointing to successful practices. For example, it has now been established that teachers become more convinced of the value of in-service programs, including school-focused programs if:

- they can participate in identifying the objectives, and in planning and choosing the activities;
- the program is practical and classroom/school specific;

- fellow teachers and local consultants are used as resource people;
- adequate time is made available; and
- there is some direct follow-up and support for facilitating the application of what is learned (Fullan 1980).

All of the above may foster enhanced teacher commitment, seen as essential for school improvement (Crandall 1983). To these we should add the importance of complete support for the school's efforts from the school principal and tangible support at district (regional) levels (Loucks 1983; Cox 1983), plus access to external providers able to assist with aspects of the program set up to meet identified needs (Baker & Sikora 1981).

In short, it is not enough for a school to decide to embark on a needs analysis in order to set up an action program. Other conditions must also prevail if the program is to have the desired outcomes.

Identifying Targets for Action: Conducting a 'Needs Analysis'

Fundamental to any school-focused development program is the identification of priority targets for action. Before discussing the mechanics of conducting efficiently a 'needs analysis' there are several important matters which should be raised.

The process of conducting the needs analysis is every bit as important as the designation of the actual need areas to be pursued. Reference has already been made as to how essential it is that all staff be involved in identifying objectives and then planning and choosing activities. Schools must establish effective procedures designed to facilitate staff participation before the needs analysis is undertaken.

The Prerequisites for Success

After conducting a study in three secondary schools in which staff from a tertiary institution linked up with teachers to mount school-focused development programs, Eltis and his colleagues (1984) put forward a series of guidelines designed to enhance the prospects of school improvement programs. The establishment of a coordinating committee in this school was seen as essential. A key task for such a committee is to motivate the staff to focus on whole-school issues and, in the case of secondary schools, assist in breaking down the barriers caused by subject department organisation structures. If the committee is to be successful at getting the staff to focus on across-the-school matters, membership should contain experienced and less experienced staff, should have some of the school's executives amongst its number and be drawn from across a range of teaching areas. It should also have as part of its membership external consultants who are willing to work with the school and who can provide access to resources which will contribute to the quality of programs set up in response to the needs analysis.

The key person in the development of school-focused in-service programs will be the school coordinator or committee convenor. The INSET coordinator's task is not an easy one. The person must demonstrate considerable ability in organising and conducting meetings, communicating with staff, liaising with external providers, and be able to command the support and respect of the school executive. From their study, Eltis *et al.* (1981) suggested that the position of committee convenor should be occupied by a mature, confident, articulate person not lacking in interpersonal skills.

If a school has established a committee with terms of reference known to all staff and acknowledged power to act, then the convenor can initiate action with committee members to see how a 'needs analysis' might be carried out. For the planning to be effective, the committee should be given adequate time in which to carry out its deliberations. The provision by the principal of relief from teaching can be a very potent way of showing support for the work of the committee.

The importance of kinds of measures just described for enhancing the prospects of school-focused development programs has been highlighted by other writers. Wood and Johnson (1982), for example, have described a five-stage school improvement model in which the first stage is establishing readiness, an important dimension of which is the setting up of a planning committee which, they argue, should have very broad membership, including representatives of teachers, students, parents and the community. Goodlad (1983) says that schools should not embark upon school improvement programs unless they have assessed their own readiness for the exercise, including whether appropriate expertise exists on the staff.

Conducting a 'Needs' Analysis

After clarifying its own purpose and establishing guidelines as to how it might operate, the initial task of the committee under the leadership of its convenor will be to determine how to involve staff in an action program. The committee should consider how it might go about a 'needs' survey and then hold an initial meeting with all staff to present the possibilities. While at such a meeting the principal will be able to demonstrate support for the committee, it will be essential that committee members play a strong leadership role and win the confidence of the staff in the ability to produce action.

It should not be overlooked that for many staff this may well be a time when they are seeing a very different style of decision-making operating in the school. Eltis and his colleagues (1981) found, for example, that staff in their three secondary schools were used to decisions being made about matters affecting the school either by the principal, or the principal in consultation with the deputy and subject department heads. As well teachers were used to being considered as belonging to a particular group of subject teachers and the line of communication proceeded downwards from the executive to the staff through the subject department heads. This style of decision-making will not facilitate school-focused development programs which are intended to focus on matters from a 'total school' perspective. Thus, at an initial meeting to discuss a possible needs survey adequate opportunity should be allowed for all staff to ask questions and make suggestions, the aim being to let staff feel they 'own' the program and that, if it is going to succeed, they must be willing to continue lending their support (Gress, Inglis and Carroll 1983).

The processes followed to determine the 'needs' to be tackled should allow staff to express their views freely and clearly so that any action program devised is directed at significant matters understood by all to be important. In the Schools and In-Service Teacher Education (SITE) Evaluation Project in the United Kingdom (Baker and Sikora 1981), a combination of questionnaire and interview was used. The team from Macquarie University in Sydney adopted a similar approach (Eltis *et al.* 1981). Bolam in the United Kingdom has developed his Guidelines for Review and Institutional Development in Schools (GRIDS) as part of a Project funded by the Schools Council entitled *School Review and Development*. The following discussion is based in large measure on the approaches adopted in these three Projects.

Once the staff of a school have agreed to participate in a school-focused development program the first demand to be made of them will be participation in a needs survey. The committee should draw up a brief survey in which staff are asked to identify in-service activities required:

- for them personally,
- for them as members of a 'function group', and
- for the school as a whole.

They should also be asked to indicate in their responses what activities they consider are urgent requirements. To assist the committee to establish priorities of need, staff should also be asked to list their priorities (say, choosing five), across the three areas of personal, 'functional' group and 'whole school' needs. Using this information the committee can then identify areas of need suggested by staff in their initial responses. It is important, however, that these areas be clarified through interview and also that some indication be obtained from staff as to how the need area might be attacked.

Stage two of the 'needs analysis' can be effectively handled by a series of interviews with a cross-section (say about one-third) of the staff. Not only do the interviews help with the needs identification, they also provide staff with an opportunity to present their views on what might happen in the school. And, most importantly, they provide the committee with an opportunity to be seen playing a key role in the establishment of an across-the-school program.

There are other models which can be followed to arrive at a set of needs for a particular school. For example, Edelfelt (1982) has described the Six-Stage SDSI Program, Staff Development for School Improvement, developed by Eastern Michigan University and designed to foster collaboration between schools and the University. In this model the 'interactive needs assessment', Stage II, involves the active participation of staff with an outside consultant having expertise in the needs assessment process. The services of such a consultant can be very helpful provided that person's efforts are integrated from the beginning. This means that, when setting up a coordinating committee, a spot should be found for the consultant whose role should be fully discussed.

An extension of the consultancy model can be found in the School Resource Network Program (SRN) described by Copeland and Kingsford (1981). A Teacher's Centre offers to schools a team of three members (a facilitator, a recorder and an observer), specially trained in facilitating staff development planning meetings and these three 'facilitators' help schools in the 'identification of staff development needs' and assist with the planning of subsequent activities. An important plus in the scheme is that the Centre becomes aware of needs existing not just in individual schools but shared by a number of schools.

More recently, writers have put the view that a needs survey should involve not just teachers but also parents and pupils (Wood and Johnson 1982), and indeed other personnel such as janitors, counsellors, community agencies and central administrative staff (Massey 1981). While this idea might appear attractive, especially as schools are being encouraged to forge closer ties with their communities and to establish school-community committees (Swan and McKinnon 1984), it would seem wise to suggest that, for schools making an initial foray into school-focused development programs, it might be best to restrict the number of groups to be consulted as a first move. Joyce's view (1983) has a lot of merit: school improvement should occur in stages, and a more ambitious overhaul should be overtaken only after the school has had experience working on more restricted aspects of its program. For this reason, too, it has not been suggested that parents and/or pupils should initially be members of an in-service coordinating committee. Expansion of the committee to include representatives of these groups might best occur after the staff have had some experience working collaboratively on school improvement.

Feedback to Staff

Once interviews have been completed (no matter what approach is adopted), the committee should prepare for a meeting at which staff members are informed of the results of the 'needs analysis'. It is important for the committee's standing that the second full staff meeting take place within a specified time frame, say no later than six weeks after the initial meeting. By adhering to such a tight schedule, the committee will show that it intends to get on with the action and that it has the ability to get the job done.

In addition to providing staff with the results of the needs survey, a second purpose of the meeting will be to enlist staff support for the development of activities designed to meet the identified needs now more closely defined and established in a priority order. There are those who argue that action should continue only if there is support from about three-quarters of the staff (Edelfelt 1982). That percentage may be too demanding. It has to be said that there will be some staff members who will have needs of a more personal kind (*e.g.* young teachers still going through induction; teachers taking a senior class for the first time in an area they have not taught before) and may simply not have the time to give a school-focused development program their full support. The committee must decide whether or not it should continue when it assesses staff reaction at the second staff meeting.

The Importance of Process

Before turning to the setting up of action programs it is important to point out the procedures just described place considerable emphasis on processes which can facilitate the involvement of all practitioners in school-focused development programs. The view being put is that in-service should not be something done to teachers but should rather call for their active participation in and contribution to program development (Emrick and Peterson 1980). What is devised will not be a static program but one which will need continuous adaptation and will call for teachers to display greater willingness to accept responsibility for issues beyond the classroom door.

If the process is working and teachers are sharing ideas about problems in the school and how to resolve them, then the result will be a school in which there is a climate of greater trust and more open communication (Copeland and Kingsford 1981). But most important, the atmosphere created will be one which McLaughlin and Berman (1978), following their Rand Studies, see as the most effective: teachers are seen as creative problem-solvers and not as recipients of 'top-down' information designed to 'fix it all'.

Designing Action Programs

It has already been suggested that the prospects of school-focused development programs will be greatly enhanced if results of a staff survey of needs can be fed back in detail relatively quickly. The expectation will be established that, with the aid of its efficient committee, the staff can achieve the goals it sets for itself. As Gress and his colleagues have said: 'Staff development for changing school climate is concerned with participant expectations . . . It is the changing of expectations as well as the changing of the *status quo* which improve climate' (1983, p3).

The task now is to decide what action should be instigated so that the staff can be actively involved in the pursuit of programs devised in response to clearly identified needs. It is at this point that teacher expectations should not be ignored, though they may be hard to match. Teachers used to brief bursts of in-service focused often on quite specific teaching problems may have unrealistic expectations about how quickly they might see an 'improvement'. It is not uncommon now to read that an effective staff development program with the school as the unit of change will take 3-5 years (Gress, Inglis and Carroll 1983; Wood and Johnson 1982).

It is worth citing Joyce and his colleagues (1983) once again. Arguing that schools should be realistic about what can be achieved, especially in the early years of a school-focused program, they suggest that school improvement be undertaken in stages. During the first stage, attention might be given to the refinement of aspects of a school's program (*e.g.* a change of policy for school discipline; closer integration of a language across the curriculum policy). That is, adjustments might be made to school objectives and minor aspects of programs without greatly disturbing the school's equilibrium. In the second stage, renovation of one important aspect of the school's program can be undertaken (*e.g.* a revision of the curriculum for pupils in a particular year). Here the aim is threefold: to improve the school's program in one area; to establish staff development as a way of life; and, most important, to allow teachers to experience group problem-solving activities in an atmosphere which supports school improvement. Finally, schools might attempt a major overhaul of the organisation, programs and practices, in an attempt to design what Joyce *et al.* call 'the school of the future'. This aligns with the advice offered by Wood and Johnson (1982) who suggest that it is desirable to identify outcomes for the first year of a program and then to concentrate on these primary aspects after preparing a detailed plan. At the end of that year progress can be reviewed in terms of what has been achieved on individual programs and how the goals achieved are linked to longer-term objectives.

In planning programs a number of considerations might be kept in mind. If a major aim is to help staff acquire skill at group problem-solving on matters which affect the whole school community, then it is important that a significant issue be selected which represents a challenge for the school as a whole. Once a decision has been taken concerning the focus of a program the school's committee should coordinate activities and see where additional assistance might be needed and found outside the school. It may even be possible for individual staff to go to courses already on offer with the specific brief of returning to the school to share their newly-acquired knowledge with their colleagues.

When selecting programs to be pursued it should also be possible to identify some areas where 'functional groups' in the school might participate in programs which meet their specific needs. (For example, a number of staff might have suggested a need for further assistance with evaluating software for computers). As well, some individual teachers might have specific requests catered for. Teachers should feel confident that their own needs will not be ignored because the school has embarked on a total school development program.

Whatever activities are undertaken, the coordinating committee should review not just the activities themselves but also the effectiveness of the processes being followed in delivering and presenting them, and their impact. Committee members need to remain alert to the need to listen to staff and receive their comments.

Conclusion

School-focused development programs are difficult to get under-way. Teachers need to be convinced of the need for deliberate and reflective analysis of what is happening overall in the day-to-day activities of the school with a view to introducing change. Teachers also need to be convinced that advice from those outside the school might help them to see matters from a different perspective and thus overcome their insularity. Considerable effort needs to be expended if schools are to develop a positive attitude to the potential of school-focused development activities and not approach such a venture with a cynical, negative disposition. Certainly teachers need more training to help them acquire the skills needed to increase collaboration and overcome the reluctance to face the risks associated with this kind of work (Emrick and Peterson 1980).

It appears that the process of achieving collaborative efforts might be easier to sustain in primary than in secondary schools. According to Firestone and Herriott (1982), primary schools can have more of a shared sense of purpose and their size and structure can contribute to greater staff cohesion. Thus, when new programs are initiated, it can be easier to obtain commitment to them in primary schools (Baker and Sikora 1981). Teachers in secondary schools, on the other hand, are members of a complex organisation where there is a high level of 'structural looseness' which may contribute to a low level of goal consensus, making it difficult to establish school-focused development programs.

Finally school staff should not be misled about the demands to be placed upon them if a school embarks on a school-focused development program. A realistic attempt should be made to assess the likely commitment of staff before an extensive school improvement program is undertaken. School principals should not be too despairing if the action depends very heavily on the efforts of a dedicated few, as this may well be the norm in programs of this kind (Emrick and Peterson 1980). The workload demanded is, after all, very high if the program is to be successful.

References

Baker, K. and Sikora, J.M. (1981) *The Schools and In-Service Teacher Education (SITE) Evaluation Project 1979-1981. Final Report,* University of Bristol School of Education, Bristol.

Batten, M. (1979) *Schools Commission Evaluation Studies. Report of a National Evaluation of the Teacher Development Program,* Schools Commission, Canberra.

Bolam, R. (1981) *Strategies for Sustaining Educational Improvement in the 1980s,* OECD, Paris.

Bolam, R. (1982a) *In-Service Education and Training of Teachers,* OECD, Paris.

Bolam, R. (1982b) *School-Focused In-Service Training,* Heinemann, London.

Copeland, W.D. and Kingsford, S. (1981) *Helping Schools Plan Staff Development: A Study of an Approach to In-Service Education,* ERIC ED 218 239.

Cox, P.L. (1983) Complementary roles in successful change, *Educational Leadership*, (3) 10-13.

Crandall, D.P. (1983) The teacher's role in school improvement, *Educational Leadership*, 41 (3), 6-9.

Dillon-Peterson, B. (1981) *Staff Development/Organization Development*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Virginia.

Dutch Schools Council (1979) *Developing an Autonomous School*, The Hague.

Edelfelt, R.A. (1982) *Review and Evaluation. Staff Development for School Improvement Program, 1981-82*, Eastern Michigan University, ERIC ED 221 528.

Eltis, K.J., Braithwaite, R.J., Deer, C.E. and Kensell, H.G. (1981) *Fostering School-Focused Development Programs*, Macquarie University, Sydney.

Eltis, K.J., Braithwaite, R.J., Deer, C.E. and Kensell, H.G. (1984) Assisting schools to develop school-focused action programs. In Wideen, M. and Hopkins, D. (eds.) *Alternative Perspectives on School Improvement*, Falmer Press, London, 119-39.

Emrick, J.A. and Peterson, S.M. (1980) *School Practitioner Involvement in the Improvement of Practice: Review and Synthesis*, ERIC ED 213 663.

Firestone, W.A. and Herriott, R.E. (1982) Prescriptions for effective elementary schools don't fit secondary schools, *Educational Leadership*, 51-3.

France, G.H. (1981) Aspects of the professional development of the classroom teacher in mid-career, *Unicorn*, 7 (2), 154-63.

Fullan, M. (1980) *In-Service Education and Training of Teachers: Towards School-Focused Training. The Canadian Experience*, OECD, Paris.

Goodlad, J.I. (1983) The school as a workplace. In Griffin, G.A. (ed.) *Staff Development, 82nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Chicago University Press, Chicago.

Goodlad, J.I. (1984) *A Place Called School*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Gress, J.R., Inglis, J.D. and Carroll, R.B. (1983) *A Staff Development Model for Changing School Climate*, ERIC ED 231 084.

Howey, K.R. (1980) *School-Focused In-Service Education: Clarification of a New Concept and Strategy*, OECD, Paris.

Joyce, B.R., Hersh, R.H. and McKibbin, M. (1983) *The Structure of School Improvement*, Longman, New York.

Linden Courter, R. and Ward, B.A. (1983) Staff development for school improvement. In Griffin, G.A. (ed.) *Staff Development. 82nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Chicago University Press, Chicago.

Loucks, S.F. (1983) At last: Some good news from a study of school improvement, *Educational Leadership*, 41 (3), 4-5.

Massey, S. (ed.) (1981) *Staff Development in Secondary Schools*, ERIC ED 209 195.

McLaughlin, M.W. and Berman, P. (1979) *The Art of Retooling Staff Development in a Period of Retrenchment*, ERIC ED 147 954.

Power, C. (1983) Teacher development at the school level, *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 11 (2), 1-11.

Swan, D. and McKinnon, D. (1984) *Future Directions of Secondary Education*, NSW Department of Education, Sydney.

Wood, F.H. and Johnson, G. (1982) *Staff Development and the /I/D/E/A/ School Improvement Project*, ERIC ED 223 612.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SUPERVISION

Dawn M. Thew

This paper explores the classification of the professional development needs of teachers which vary considerably in relation to developmental stages of a teacher's career. Teachers may have induction needs, extension needs, refreshment and/or conversion needs. It is essential to ensure that supervision by senior staff takes account of where the teacher is at and focuses on a collegial/school-wide program in planning professional development. The supervisor of such programs has the added responsibility of building upon the confidence of teachers through good interpersonal relations and establishing cooperative partnerships to provide a structure for researching one's own teaching, using evaluation as a feedback mechanism to facilitate a systematic change in professional performance as the outcome of such collaboration offered for professional renewal.

The professional development of teachers is related to achieving professional growth and motivation for continuing renewal of knowledge skills and competencies of teaching and instruction.

In its Bicentennial Report on Education in 1976, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education captured the essence of the task when it claimed that:

> Continuing professional development reaches beyond the support of beginning teacher efforts to apply teaching knowledge and skills to particular school and community situations. It reaches beyond the meeting of specific school system needs through in-service education. Its formula is the development of professional teacher scholars, capable of high levels of diagnosis and prescriptions; coordination of the instructional effects of other professionals and paraprofessional associates; and exercising leadership in school community and the profession. Continuing professional development aims at proficiency, at mastery, even at brilliance in the performance of instructional responsibilities.
>
> (Howman 1976, 103)

These sentiments link very well with the aims of the supervision process operating within schools.

Aims of the Supervision Process

Professional development through supervision probably has three important aims:

- to help teachers to become knowledgeable about available teaching strategies and the evidence of their strengths and weaknesses;
- to support all teachers in a goal of lifetime professional renewal through constant efforts to improve their instructional understandings, skills and competencies;

- to assist teachers to become professional educators, expressing autonomy in decision-making, accountability for learning outcomes and personal satisfactions of involvement and commitment in helping relationships with children.

From a situational analysis Power (1983) has indicated the differing developmental needs of teachers at various stages in their careers for professional development programs. They are of four types related to specific circumstances:

1. Induction Needs

- period of probation at start of career

  or

- adjustment period immediately following appointment to new position.

2. Extension Needs

- early career period; serving as subject or class teacher

  or

- middle career period; serving as head of department or team

  or

- later career period; serving as deputy head or head.

3. Refreshment Needs

- period towards end of gap in career

  or

- period prior to beginning to teach a subject or age range not taught for a long time

  or

- period of excessively repetitious professional experience (*e.g.* same post, same school, similar type of children).

4. Conversion Needs

- period prior to internal redeployment

  or

- period prior to external redeployment

  or

- period of anticipated promotion

  or

- period of ante-retirement.

All of these needs may be identified as applicable within the school staff at the same time. The selection of professional development activity and the supervision of teachers in the school must take account of where the individual teacher is at.

Communication, management and social skills are required skills for all teachers, and professional development helps to maintain and renew such skills in helping competent teachers to become outstanding teachers and by helping less competent teachers to become competent. In both instances thus becoming committed to the systematic questioning and study of their own teaching and the exchange of ideas and theoretical insights (Stenhouse 1975).

Professional development and supervision of teachers must be a collegial enterprise focused on the school situation in which the participants must operate and is generally more effective if it occurs in small work groups especially if changes in behaviour and orientation are expected outcomes. For example teachers of classes in the same grade may form a small work group to examine specific issues related to that grade, or at the secondary level, subject departments may address themselves as a group to a particular aspect of the content they are teaching.

Problem solving techniques which capitalise on the collective experience and insights of teachers are relevant to the principles of adult learning and development especially where a wide range of experience is evident. Participation and involvement at the collegial level is thus important in the utilisation of supervisors and consultants.

Consultants may be internal members of the school staff who have specialised expertise or, more frequently, be external advisors or experts in specific curriculum areas or innovations, who may be called into the school as a resource to the Professional Development program needs.

> If schools are to become self-sustaining educational communities, there will need to be within each school or cluster of schools, at least one individual with special expertise in each major subject area of the curriculum and each area of pedagogy who is given the responsibility, the materials and the opportunity to exercise leadership, share information and stimulate debate. (Power 1983, 10).

The selection of staff to act as consultants or to be superintendents in the professional development tasks should perhaps be based on the above assumption.

Supervisors, superintendents or coordinators tend to be those senior members of staff with administrative responsibilities who are frequently designated as having specific leadership roles in any professional development project by virtue of their extensive experience, expertise or responsibilities. Such a leadership role in professional development activities does however still require the obligation of credibility if the superintendent is to be successful in this important staff role. Interpersonal relations skills are also essential to avoid the resentment of staff and the connotation of assessment, or as sometimes expressed in popular terms as 'snooping' on staff.

Any professional development program should build upon the confidence of the teachers, challenge the curiosity of a need to know more and develop an openness to receiving constructive feedback or guidance from others. This last is the hardest to achieve with teachers whether at a pre-service, beginning or experienced phase. Those who are attracted to teaching as a profession often have a self-concept founded on the ability to do and to tell others how to do rather than on receiving and accepting advice.

Supervision of teachers in a school setting therefore has to address this problem first if gains are to be made. The habit of objective self-evaluation and self-analysis has to be established within the school as a whole, within groups of staff and by individuals. This process is assisted by having clear aims, objectives and stated specific behavioural outcomes which each individual or group can apply to their unique circumstances.

The joint formulation of a professional development program at the beginning of the year is a good example of developing openness to supervision, especially if the aims, objectives, behavioural outcomes and method of moderation of the observations necessary, are agreed to at a staff meeting.

Skills of analysis and attack in behavioural terms need to be both implicit and explicit to avoid: the anguish of compromise (likes versus what is possible); excessive teaching loads; duties which thwart the instructional process; and human relations problems which disrupt the cooperation between pupils, teachers and school administrators. Teaching role strain or the persistent conflict between a teacher's personal desires and the expectations of others needs to be avoided. Supervision which adds to this strain through disillusionment or discouragement has no part in professional development if developing better teachers is to be achieved.

Programs should thus have clear and defensible goals; indicate knowledge, skills and types of activities to be provided; and the principles and procedures for evaluation to be utilised. Some well known examples of such programs are mini-courses such as those in the Macquarie Minicourses Program, which may be adapted to operate even at a school level; action research, where some crucial concern is to be investigated and the specific actions trialled in the classroom; or organisation development, which is to be dealt with more specifically in one of the later chapters.

Underlying Principles and Assumptions of the Supervision Process

To work closely as a team or as a partner in a school program which attacks an identified specific problem and objectively observes the outcomes achieved, is to provide *a structure for supervision* and for professional development.

Important principles to consider include interpersonal considerations, prerequisite planning and implementation strategies.

1. In the area of *interpersonal considerations* the underlying assumptions relate to the need for good human relations with staff. Such aspects as *sensitivity* to personal attributes, enthusiasm for the task in hand and *willingness to examine specific personal concerns* of teachers about their teaching behaviours, are basic to achieving both a supervisory process and encouraging professional development.

   A further aspect of interpersonal considerations refers to the ability of the consultant or superintendent to *win the cooperation* of the total school staff. Concepts which are operative in achieving this refer to establishing a *genuine partnership* for the professional development tasks planned, being able to *delegate responsibilities,* involving the participants directly in all facets of the program or activities planned, being *open to new ideas* and arriving at decisions by a process of *consensus.*

In the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher being supervised, the importance of an *indirectness of approach* in communications which attempts to reduce inference in evaluation is highlighted by Turney (1982). In this way greater objectivity in providing feedback can be obtained. Indirectness of approach for example leads the teacher being supervised to consider all the observable data and explore alternative activities before deciding the next step, rather than the supervisor saying 'that's the wrong way to go about it, I want you to do it this way'. The less dogmatic a supervisor can be the more the relationship relies on a mutual sharing of ideas.

2. With respect to *prerequisite planning* the obvious principles of relevance of the supervision for the school staff as a whole and for the individual teacher in particular, is most important if *cooperation* is to be maintained. Similarly, *awareness of the context* in which teachers are working is of paramount importance. Assumptions about the context of the school and particular classrooms should be verified by observation and examining data, about such factors as the range of abilities and skills, performance levels achieved, ethnic composition and similar influences on teaching which should be fully considered. With respect to a formulated plan for professional development it is imperative that cooperative goal setting takes place either with the teacher concerned, the group responsible or the total school staff as appropriate to the scope of the plan. In any case knowledge about the project and its progress would be part of an essential school communication process, by newsletter and/or meetings.

   Plans for a concerned effort for improvement of behaviour or outlook should be carefully *selected* from a range of options or alternatives considered. The final selection should also have a highly specific *focus* for the individual teacher(s) involved. Attention cannot be given to a wide range of behaviour or curriculum aspects at once. Selection and specific focus together are tremendously important to reduce role strain for the participants.

3. In *implementing strategies* for professional development programs the principles to consider include the *variety of modes* of observation, such as, use of tape recording or video recording, checklists and the like, or whether an inquiry or didactic mode should be used. Variety is also important with respect to the *participants*. For example, are individual teachers to implement their version of the program? Are teachers working in pairs? Across the grades? Within the same grade? Are groups of teachers to be involved as teams or as syndicate? For a school plan devised on the initiative of a superintendent or consultant, these factors affecting implementation need to be clarified.

   In some instances the *timing* of the activities or tasks is critical to the teacher's development. If too soon or too late an application disadvantages may occur. Timing within the school term or year schedule of events may also need preliminary consideration. The most important principle relating to implementation strategies relates to *feedback* and how this is to be achieved and interpreted. In the feedback phase in particular Olivero (1970) advocates a supervisory system at three stages:

(a) asking participants what changes were necessary in the activity/lesson;
(b) rewarding and reinforcing those things which went well; and
(c) analysing or focusing on two or three aspects for future attention.

Feedback is offered to bring about improvement by sustaining, developing or changing a behaviour, skill or strategy in the classroom. Both Ausubel (1968) and Gagne (1970) accept that feedback is essential for learning and that knowledge of progress made, positively influences what is learned. One particular approach to learning to teach, microteaching incorporates feedback, usually in the form of video replay coupled with supervision and peer critique, about specified teaching skills (Turney *et al.* 1973). Sharing interpretations is an essential component of feedback to resolve disagreements, acknowledge problems, determine priorities, plan alternatives and to agree to new goals and strategies for improving teaching (Turney *et al.* 1982).

Developing Skills

Substantial work has been undertaken by Turney and his teams in identifying a repertoire of teaching behaviours and developing materials to assist in their acquisition and practice. The Sydney Micro-Skills Series No. 1 to 5 outline a range of specifically focused teaching skills for teachers to be practised in microteaching settings with video replay of performance for analysis by self or others, or for miniteaching exercises where a peer or partner makes observations on the level of effectiveness achieved in implementing such a specific teaching skill.

The skills identified include Introduction and Closure of lessons, questioning (basic and higher order) variability; reinforcement; explaining; individualising; grouping; discussion; discovery learning and stimulating creativity. With knowledge and practice of such a repertoire of teaching behaviours the classroom teacher individually, or with a partner, can make significant gains in both analysis of the teaching act and performance levels of such components.

More recently, Turney (1982) and his team of teacher educators from a number of institutions have developed a series of role analyses related to the skills required for the supervision of student teachers during practice teaching. The advantage of this material with its emphasis on analysis of the six supervisor roles and their component skills is that such material is equally applicable in the supervision of qualified teachers. The roles identified as being interrelated in the supervision process are the roles of manager, counsellor, observer, provider of feedback, instructor and evaluator.

The material presents concepts, video examples of classroom teaching and acquisition activities for workshops which can be used by partners or a small team, to address a particular role such as providing feedback or observation of teaching behaviour. The use of such materials in a syndicate-type exercise or using actual classroom data from observations made, can provide more perceptive insights into the process of supervision.

These Supervisor Development materials are making a significant impact throughout Australia on the improvement of the supervision of beginning teachers. It is hoped that this material will be used more widely for meeting inducting needs of beginning teachers and the renewal/refreshment needs of experienced teachers, as well as for those who find themselves in the superintendent/supervisor role.

Of special attention for superintendents/consultants from the material would be the role analysis of skills of relating, responding and helping at an interpersonal level within the Counsellor Role; the questioning; modelling; problem solving and conferencing skills in guiding individual improvements within the Instructor Role; and the Feedback Role skills of reinforcing, focused reviewing, identifying patterns, examining data, contracting and determining priorities for further attention.

The materials referred to provide valuable resources for examination in implementing any Professional Development program through the use of supervision. In general the materials have adopted a modified 'clinical supervision' model first developed by Goldhammer (1969) as a series of interaction stages in the process of supervision so that 'supervision encounters could be sharply focused in purpose and task, based on close observation and detailed observational data and arranged in productive sequence' (Turney 1982, 2). Similar stages of supervision have been explored by Cogan (1973), Boyer and Copeland (1974), Acheson and Gall (1980). The work of Turney and his team in 1982 is the first substantial supervisor development program to use Australian settings and concepts.

The goals of Clinical Supervision expressed by Acheson and Gall (1980) are:

(1) to provide teachers with objective feedback on the current state of their interaction;
(2) to diagnose and solve instructional problems;
(3) to help teachers develop skill in using instructional strategies;
(4) to evaluate teachers for promotion, tenure or other decisions;
(5) to help teachers develop a positive attitude about continuous professional development (pp12-13).

Major activities in any supervision cycle include:

planning conferences, classroom observation and feedback conferences in relation to the goals;
counselling related to personal issues and classroom performance;
curriculum support related to selection of materials, objectives and philosophy of teaching.

Since teachers largely work alone or in pairs, they may necessarily become autonomous in diagnosing and remedying defects in their teaching (Power 1983). Such a supervision process assists teachers to analyse the situation more precisely.

A teacher needs to be aware of the need to probe classroom practice in both teaching skills and curriculum planning. It is very easy to work unsystematically. A cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting is essential before deciding to follow through on a particular improvement. The follow-through program needs to look for patterns in the basic ways we teach and to observe the differences between our intentions and the results obtained. The data gathered should focus on a teaching strategy which is of concern to the teacher. Reflections on the initial pattern of implementation used and a close monitoring of specific aspects of real significance bring about the selection of a specific focus for concentrated attention, modification and adaptation. The use of diaries, cumulative records of students' work, questionnaires, interviews, checklists and observation schedule, photographs, tape recordings, video tapes are all modes of gathering the kind of data you wish to identify with the real problem. Discussion of the problem with others often illuminates a range of strategies to be considered in overcoming or modifying the problem. This kind of systematic data gathering and analysis at a simple level within the classroom has been well presented by Kemmis (1982).

Researching one's own teaching is also regarded as a means of continuing the teachers' own education. Action research projects in teams is simple to apply and the approach offers consultancy support and is developmental in offering a process which enables teachers to further their own competence and autonomy over time (France and Wootton 1982). Self-evaluation should therefore begin by defining what the teacher wants to have happening in the classroom, then by working out means by which these wanted processes are monitored (Groundwater and Nicoll 1980). Evaluation is crucial if the teacher wants to ensure that fine-tuning of the classroom activities is occurring.

Evaluation as a feedback mechanism is a vital and essential aspect of teaching, learning and administering (Turney 1981). In the case of supervision by a superintendent some other concerns also operative are those of quality control and accountability within a total school perspective.

The conflict between the dual role of facilitator and evaluator is a perennial one for superintendents. The 'sting' of evaluation can be lessened by a skilful supervisor. Teachers are most threatened when they are unaware of the criteria by which they will be judged or they inherently do not trust the evaluator's ability to be fair. These concerns can be alleviated by involving the teacher in the evaluative process by sharing in the evolving of the criteria and by basing the evaluation on objective observational data shared with the teacher. This process avoids cross-purposes (Acheson and Gall 1980).

There are also specific areas for professional development which should be considered for those in administrative positions as superintendents. These areas are:

(1) the art of supervision as achieving cooperative partnerships;
(2) principles of administration especially communication, responsibility, authority and its delegation;
(3) personnel relations – effective relations and understanding of the group dynamics of teamwork and leadership;
(4) skills of democratic discussion in both staff and group meetings;
(5) expression of new ideas or plans with clearly stated aims and objectives.

With the emphasis on professional development programs for *all* members of the school staff it is important to use a consultation model and a mutually accountable approach in evaluation (Power 1983). Both approaches try to involve teachers in expressing views about the nature and scope of evaluation and to have a legitimate interest in the quality and progress made. Collaboration ensures that the school is professionally alive and utilises a professional pool of resources for all to share. In this way expectations are cooperatively developed and accepted as the responsibilities of a professional so that standards do not have to be imposed from any outside authorities, but rather are generated by a group of responsible and autonomous professional educators, systematically concerned with their own professional development.

References

Acheson, K.A. and Gall, M.D. (1980) *Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers.* Pre-service and In-service Applications, Longman Inc., New York.

Boyan, N.J. and Copeland, W.D. (1984) *A Training Program for Supervisors: Anatomy of an Educational Development.* Bureau of Educational Research and Development, University of California, Berkeley.

Cogan, M.L. (1973) *Clinical Supervision.* Houghton-Miflin, Boston.

France, G.H. and Wootton, A.M. (1982) Researching One's Own Teaching, *Unicorn,* 81, 75-81.

Goldhammer, R. (1969) *Clinical Supervision,* Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Groundwater-Smith, S. and Nicoll, V. (1980) *Evaluation in the Primary School,* Novak, Sydney.

Howsam, R.B. (Ed.) (1976) *Educating a Profession.* The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington.

Kemmis, S. (1982) Studying Ourselves: School-based Evaluation of Curriculum Review and Improvements in Schools and Classrooms. *The Australian Journal of Teaching Practice,* 3 (1), 7-20.

Olivero, J.L. (1970) *Microteaching: Medium for Improving Instruction,* Merrill, Ohio.

Power, C. (1983) Teacher Development at the School Level. *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 11 (2), 1-11.

Stenhouse, L. (1975) *An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development,* Heinemann, London.

Turney, C. *et al.* (1973) *Microteaching.* Sydney University Press, Sydney.

Turney, C. (Ed.) (1981) *Anatomy of Teaching,* Novak, Sydney.

Turney, C. *et al.* (1982) *Supervision Development Program: Role Handbook.* Sydney University Press, Sydney.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE AND THE NEEDS OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Judith D. Chapman

In recent times, an excessive reliance upon agents and planned activities external to the school, has been the subject of considerable challenge. Reflecting teacher preference for collegial interaction, individualised learning and school-based experience, calls have been made for a more integrated approach to professional development which establishes the learning community of the school as a major context for professional development and the collegial relationship of staff as the principal medium for professional growth. This paper examines the implications of this approach for the principal. In addition, it examines the professional development needs of principals and the problems inherent in ensuring that the principal is in a position to more effectively fulfill the role of staff developer within the school.

Teaching ability grows when the teacher is a deeply engrossed student.
(Chall 1975, 172)

Approaches to Professional Development

Even a cursory examination of professional development efforts in Australia reveals that the dominant feature of such efforts in the past has been the heavy reliance upon agents and planned activities external to the school. Vast amounts of money have been directed into the establishment of professional development centres. Staff have been withdrawn from schools to be 'inserviced', often in remote residential quarters. Even in schools where school personnel may have been involved in identifying overall objectives for professional development programs, 'expert' consultants from universities, colleges or professional development centres have largely been responsible for program content, execution and design. A major assumption underlying such an approach has been the existence of some 'deficiency' among school-based personnel. This has produced the concomitant assumption that to rectify deficiency, external input is required.

In recent times however, an excessive reliance upon agents and planned activities external to the school, has been the subject of considerable challenge . . . 'These efforts towards staff improvement are often seen by practitioners as oppressive, overly simplistic, regimented and mostly irrelevant'. (Emrick and Peterson 1980, 5)

The new emphasis is on the 'internal' experience. Rather than external consultants, teachers have been found to rate other teachers as the most reliable source of expertise (Reilly and Dembo 1975; Yarger, Howey and Joyce 1980) and practice-based knowledge as the most useful and relevant basis for professional growth (Lawrence 1977; Howey 1980). Professional associations, have, of course, long recognised this. Yet, they too have not been able to meet the additional teacher preference for school-based experience (Farnsworth 1981) linked to the network of interactions within the school (Washington and Chisholm 1979) and the changing needs of the individual teacher over time (Luehe 1979).

Reflecting teacher preference for collegial interaction, individualised learning and school-based experience, calls have been made for a more integrated approach to professional development which establishes the learning community of the school as the major context for professional development and the collegial relationships of all members of staff as the principal medium for professional growth (Klopf 1974, 1979; McLaughlin and Marsh 1978; Emrick 1980; Macpherson 1982; Barth 1981). From this perspective professional development becomes much more than a presentation of programs. Staff growth and change becomes a school process 'the heart of which is the enabling role of one individual with another' (Klopf 1974, 13).

No-one suggests the attainment of a more integrated approach within the traditional school climate and structure will be easy. The isolation of the classroom and the physically and emotionally draining nature of teaching has been found to frustrate interaction and growth:

> Effective teaching requires extensive giving of self. Giving is possible to the extent that one receives. When positive reinforcement for teaching effort is slight, as it often is, abilities to give become drained. With the depletion of energy comes fatigue, frustration, apathy and defensive behaviour. (Rogus and Martin 1979, 83).

Under existing conditions, opportunities for teachers to share ideas and expertise with colleagues have been found to be few (Lortie 1975; Feiman-Nemser 1980). Teachers, moreover, have been found to be 'pragmatic skeptics' assessing any change against considerations of practicality and compatibility with their own beliefs, values, experiences, interpersonal needs and position (Doyle 1977; Doyle and Ponder 1977).

How then does one create a collegial atmosphere in which adults want to develop and grow? Under what conditions will teachers be prepared to surface concerns, declare their positions and on occasions face the unknown?

There is very little empirical research evidence to assist in answering these questions. The most valuable guidance appears to emerge from the literature which contains the reflections of practitioners and the observations of those who have worked closely with school staffs in the achievement of the professional development goal.

This literature focuses upon the importance of the presence of an 'enabling' agent 'to set general directions and create the environment or design the structures that enable people to discover their own talents and skills'. (Barth 1981, 161)

Given their control over the conditions and structures of a teacher's professional life, research suggests that members of the school administration are in the best position to assume that role (Range 1977; Weldy 1979; McPherson 1981; Manning 1981; Gall and De Bevoise 1983; Duignan and Johnson 1984).

Australian principals, in fact, have already revealed in a 1983 national study (Duignan 1984) that they perceive the stimulation and motivation of staff to maximum performance and the encouragement of staff professional development to be among their most important responsibilities: '(Principals) identified their own effectiveness as principals primarily with the harmonious, effective work of all other staff members'. (Duignan 1984, 60) Furthermore 'it would seem that principals would want to encourage their staff members to better themselves, both for personal satisfaction and improved competence in their teaching activities'. (Duignan 1984, 65)

To exercise more effectively these responsibilities in respect to staff, however, principals reported that they too, were in need of professional development. The provision of greater opportunities for their own professional development and the professional development of their staffs, principals argued, would overcome the major constraint to their effectiveness (Duignan 1984).

The subsequent sections of this paper examine the implications that emerge from the principal more actively adopting the role of staff developer. In addition it examines the professional development needs of principals and the problems inherent in ensuring that the principal is in a position to more effectively fulfill the role of staff developer in the school.

The Principal as Staff Developer

The multi-faceted nature of the principal's responsibilities (Phillips and Thomas 1984), the already brief and fragmented nature of his/her interactions with staff (Willis 1981), and the multiple demands on an already extended work time (Chapman 1984) may well discourage the principal from anything that may appear as a further expansion of his/her role. Far easier it would appear to 'release' staff to achieve the professional development goal.

But notwithstanding the aforementioned difficulties and not denying the need to augment school experiences with external stimulus, the literature provides some guidance to those administrators who may choose to more strongly define their role as staff developers within the school.

Klopf (1974) suggests that principals who choose to use themselves as an 'enabling' resource in staff growth must be able to work effectively with adults, be prepared to make themselves available to staff, encourage staff to express their individual problems and needs, elicit and make use of staff members' ideas and suggestions and provide release time and support when required. Such principals must see themselves as learners, but in turn they must be seen as 'knowledgeable' by others. Additionally, they must be able to 'conceptualise', relating their knowledge to 'the concerns and issues of the educational process, seeing, connecting, diagnosing and analysing in terms of the whole' (Klopf 1974, 22).

> All these competencies are based on the principal having a concept of person and believing in the worth and potential of each adult and child in the school setting. The school must be seen as an instrument for improving the quality of the life of the person as well as the whole human community. (Klopf 1974, 10)

Rogus and Martin (1979) suggest that such principals must be prepared to recognise the important source of knowledge and expertise that exists among staff. In so doing they will be able to create in their schools a climate in which teachers are seen as creators as well as consumers of knowledge. Rather than reinforcing the situation in which teachers wish to deny the existence of problems, such principals will encourage teachers to identify problems and take initiative in their solution . . .

> The greatest and most precious resource that any staff has is itself. Too often faculty go outside the organisation for inservice assistance and then reject the outcome. Our 'other directedness' tells something about the way we perceive ourselves. Each teacher can teach something to others. It's often simply a matter of matching persons with the expertise desired. (Rogus and Martin 1979, 86)

The key to the potential effectiveness of any approach, Rogus and Martin argue, is 'the spirit' with which it is carried out. Whether attempting to counter the energy drainage of teaching by praise, reinforcement or acknowledgement, or countering the aloneness of the classroom by encouraging teaming and developing attitudes essential to working effectively together 'the principal's example in daily interactions with staff constitutes a powerful model from which teachers might learn' (Rogus and Martin 1979, 87).

Recounting his experiences as a principal concerned with making a school a context for the personal and professional growth of staff, Roland Barth (1981) Director of the Principals' Center at Harvard University, reports on his success in encouraging 'if only' fantasies . . .

> Staff Development for me has come to take on a quite different meaning. I now see it as listening in a hundred different ways for a question to emanate from teachers. It usually takes the form 'Here's what I want to try' and staff development means being ready to supply in a hundred different ways assistance and encouragement . . . I have found that any initiative from a teacher carries with it a powerful potential for professional growth. (Barth 1981, 153)

The crux of teachers' professional growth, he concludes, lies in the development of the capacity to observe and analyse the consequences of different techniques and to make the necessary modifications. This he found to occur as a consequence of teachers and principal pursuing 'thoughtfully and imaginatively' regular school issues and functions in a climate of 'reflection, growth and refinement of practice . . .'

> The way to ensure that a teacher becomes a deeply engrossed student is to allow and encourage the teacher to identify the problem which the teacher will be addressing. (Barth 1981, 153)

In the Australian setting, Duignan and Johnson (1984) found that the principal's role in fostering continuous professional growth is effected through the following practices:

1. *Announcing Expectations.* The principal should regularly state his/her desire for teachers to adopt a collegial and enterprising approach to work;

2. *Enacting Expectations.* By his/her own behaviour, the principal should model the desired norms of expectation;
3. *Sanctioning Behaviour.* The principal should use appropriate techniques for approving or disapproving teachers' practices. In particular, he/she needs to reward collegial and enterprising effort by teachers;
4. *Sanctioned Protecting.* It is important that the principal encourage staff to inform him/her of their intentions for new approaches to classroom teaching. Once he/she has approved those new methods, he/she should support and protect those activities in the face of potential criticism;
5. *Encouraging Staff Involvement.* The principal should promote generally high staff morale and enthusiasm at school. This he/she can do by encouraging teachers to participate in a range of school activities.
6. *Evidencing Availability and Approachability.* The principal needs to be visible and accessible to staff, and should display his/her willingness to discuss teaching practices with teachers;
7. *Socialising.* It is important for the principal to participate in formal and informal staff social interaction;
8. *Facilitating Enterprise.* The principal should assist and encourage staff in their efforts to experiment with new teaching methods in their classrooms; and
9. *Being Aware.* Finally, it is important that the principal makes himself/herself aware of, and generally knowledgeable about, teachers' classroom practices.

The success of these practices in creating an atmosphere of trust and a willingness among staff to undertake continuous professional growth has been confirmed by principals in Australian schools.

Joan Montgomery, principal of Presbyterian Ladies College, Melbourne, explains how she incorporated these practices into the everyday operation of her school (Montgomery 1986, 39):

1. She announced the expectations – this might be to staff, parents or council, but if alternative methods or innovations were being considered, it was made clear that she was open to all suggestions.
2. She showed genuine interest in new teaching and administrative approaches. These were discussed fully with the initiators and on-going feedback was requested.
3. Through familiarising herself with Teacher Plans, she encouraged development. Approval of a teacher's activities were shown by:
   - increasing resources available to him/her
   - adjusting his/her load
   - adjusting his/her timetable
   - releasing staff for necessary inservice sessions
   - speaking approvingly of the teachers' work in other places – to parents, educational bodies, etc.

4. Where necessary she would protect innovators from the teacher or parent who condemned something as 'a waste of time' or 'it will never work'.
5. She arranged inservice sessions whenever the need arose. Where staff attitudes were positive and teachers had the expertise and experience, they led such sessions, otherwise a visiting expert would be invited.

Miss Montgomery concludes:

> The principal by adopting such an approach does not dominate, but through his/her physical presence, he/she will encourage and through the ways suggested he/she will exert a genuine influence. (Montgomery 1986, 39)

Professional Development Needs of Principals

Duignan and Johnson (1984) have, however, identified a number of factors which may constrain the Australian school principal from developing the norms and promoting the practices found to be associated with schools where professional development is regarded as an inherent part of everyday operation. These factors include: the interpersonal competence of the principal, the availability of time, and the demands associated with other aspects of his/her role.

The need for school administrators to possess a high degree of competence in interpersonal relationships has already been well documented. In Victoria, for instance, principals, teachers, parents and senior officers of employing authorities have identified interpersonal competencies as 'the most important for the principal to possess' (Willis and Chapman 1984). In fact, in the new arrangements in Victorian government schools, where teachers and parents in the local school community are now involved in the selection of principals, interpersonal competence has emerged as one of the most significant criteria for selection to an administrative post (Chapman 1985, Duignan 1984), however, found that Australian principals identified interpersonal competence amongst their areas of greatest need for professional growth. He concluded:

> It is assumed that a good teacher should be successful when promoted to the principalship. A factor that should not be overlooked is that while teachers may be adept at interacting with children and often receive training in this area, they rarely receive training in the skills needed to interact face to face with adults . . . (Duignan 1984, 32)

Duignan (1984) also found that principals needed training in dealing with the problems of time. Chapman (1984) had previously found that Australian school principals spent, on average, 46-50 hours per week in the performance of their duties. Twenty-eight per cent spent more than 50 hours (Chapman 1984, 38). Yet despite this extended work period Duignan found many principals frustrated at simply not having 'time' to fulfill the roles they deemed important.

> Principals generally have a guilt complex . . . because typically they would like more time interacting directly with teachers and students on curriculum matters but they invariably get 'sidetracked' by having to attend to a plethora of 'administrivia'. (Duignan 1984, 13)

The solution to the tensions associated with the dual demands of administration and educational leadership, Duignan suggests, lies in the adoption of a team management approach. This approach which, Duignan argues, not only alleviates the principal's 'time' problem and reduces that source of anxiety associated with the principal believing he/she should assume major responsibility for all school functions, also contributes to the professional development of staff.

> The idea that teams of teachers are formed to work on specific tasks *e.g.* curriculum development. The shaping of leadership takes place in this apprenticeship model because staff members are given the opportunity to rotate through the position of team leader; team leaders then rotate for one semester through the position of Vice-Principal at which time he/she serves with the Principal and Vice-Principal in an 'Educational Cabinet'. Staff members who participate in this rotation also gain valuable experience with the jobs to which they aspire. (Duignan 1984, 24)

Thus, from the most recent and comprehensive study of the professional development needs of principals there has emerged a model which not only could reduce certain tensions now inherent in the role of Australian school principal, but may well also meet the professional development needs of staff. Duignan concludes:

> This model would require a modification of the typical school organization, but the main ideas could be achieved without severe readjustment or dislocation. Certainly the model has promise and we must be daring if we are going to break out of our traditional ways of thinking about on-the-job experience. (Duignan 1984, 24).

Undoubtedly, there will be many who have serious reservations about such an approach. In an increasing number of Australian states and territories, however, the impact of decentralisation and devolution has already brought about significant changes in the nature of the principalship and the patterns of influence in schools (Chapman and Boyd 1986). In the words of the Past President of the Victorian Primary Principals Association, Mr Vern Wilhenson 'The principal now becomes relocated from the apex of the pyramid to the centre of human relationships and functions as a change agent and a resource'.

Preparing school personnel for these new arrangements will be a major challenge for professional development in the future.

References

Barth, R.S. (1979) Teacher evaluation and staff development. *National Elementary Principal,* 58 (2), 74-7.

Barth, R.S. (1981) The principal as staff developer. *Journal of Education,* 163 (2), 144-62.

Chall, J. (1975) Restoring dignity and worth to the teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 57 (2), 172.

Chapman, J.D. (1984) *A Descriptive Profile of Australian School Principals.* Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Chapman, J.D. (1984) *The Selection and Appointment of Australian School Principals.* Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Chapman, J.D. (Ed.) (1985) School Council Involvement in the Selection of Administrators. Institute of Educational Administration.

Chapman, J.D. and Boyd, W.L. (1986) Decentralization, Devolution and the School Principal: Australian Lessons on State Wide Education Reform - forthcoming, *Educational Administration Quarterly.*

Chapman, J.D. and Willis, Q. (1982) The Principal's Inter-personal World of Work. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (2), 149-62.

Doyle, W. (1977) Learning the classroom environment: an ecological analysis. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 28 (6), 51-5.

Doyle, W. and Ponder, G.A. (1977) The Practicality Ethic in Teacher Decision Making, in *Interchange*, 8 (3), 1-12.

Duignan, P. (1984) *The Australian School Principal: A National Study of the Role and Professional Development Needs of Government and Non-Government School Principals.* Report of a study funded by the Commonwealth Schools Commission.

Duignan, P. and Johnson, N. (1984) The Social Organization of Schools and Staff Development Practices. *Australian Administrator*, 5 (4), 1-4.

Edd, L. (1982) *Selling Your Staff on Staff Development.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, San Francisco.

Emrick, J.A. and Peterson, S. (1980) *School Practitioner Involvement in the Improvement of Practice: Review and Synthesis.* Emrick & Associates, Los Altos, California.

Evans, B. (1982) Collaborative Learning: An Approach for the Professional Development of Primary Schools, in *Educational Research in the 1980's.* Collection of Papers of the 1982 Annual Conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Brisbane.

Farnsworth, B.J. (1981) Professional development: Preferred methods of principals and teachers. *Education*, 101 (4), 332-4.

Feimen-Nemser, S. (1980) Growth and Reflection as Aims in Teacher Education: Directions for Research, in Hall, G.E., Herd, S.M. and Brown, G. (Eds.) *Exploring Issues in Teacher Education: Questions for Future Research*, R&D Centre for Teacher Education, University of Texas, Austin.

Flanagan, K.R. and Trueblood, C.R. (1983) *Improving the Climate in Rural Schools through an Individualized Staff Development Program.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Education Association, Manhattan, Kansas.

Gall, M.D. and De Bevoise, W. (1983) Does Principal Participation in Staff Development for Teachers Pay Off? in *R&D Perspectives*, Oregon University Centre for Educational Policy and Management.

Hersey, P.W. (1982) The NASSP assessment center develops leadership talent, in *Educational Leadership*, 39 (5), 370-1.

Hewitson, M. (Ed.) (1982) *Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role.* Education Research and Development Committee Report No. 34, Canberra.

Howey, K.R. (1980) *School Focused Inservice Teacher Education: Implications for Research and Development.* Paper presented at the Teacher Education/Staff Development Research Symposium, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Joyce, B. (1980) *The Social Ecology of the School: The Dynamics of the Internal/External Systems.* Paper presented at the Educational Research Association, Boston.

Klopf, G.J. (1974) *The Principal and Staff Development in the Elementary School: Developing* *the Role of the Elementary School Principal as an Educational Leader.* Occasional Paper No. 4, Bank Street College of Education, New York.

Klopf, G.J. (1979) *The Principal and Staff Development in School.* Bank Street College of Education, New York.

Lortie, D.C. (1975) *School Teacher: A Sociological Study.* University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Loucks, S.F. and Hall, G.E. (1979) *Implementing Innovation in Schools: A Concerns-Based Approach.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Luehe, W. (1979) Lets individualize staff development. *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 8 (3), 17-18.

McLaughlin, M.W. and Marsh, D.D. (1978) Staff development and school change. *Teachers College Record,* 80 (1), 69-94.

McPherson, B. (1981) Are they in roses? Teachers and staff development. *Journal of Education,* 163 (2), 120-34.

Macpherson, R.J.S. (1982) *The W.A. Peer Process Consultancy Project: Action Research as Inset for Principals.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education, Christchurch, New Zealand.

Manera, E.S. and Cropper, A.P. (1980) Back to the classroom: An invitation to professional renewal. *NASSP Bulletin,* 64 (433), 20-4.

Manning, G.L. and Manning, M. (1981) What is the role of the principal in an excellent reading program? Principals give their views. *Reading World,* 21 (2), 130-3.

Montgomery, J. (1986) How the school and the principal can develop the quality of teachers. *School focussed Inset and the Principal,* Singapore Education Administration Society.

Phillips, D. and Thomas, A.R. (1982) *Principals' Decision Making: Some Observations.* University of New England Teaching Monograph No. 2, Armidale, NSW.

Range, D.G. (1977) *Staff Development: Still a Major Challenge for Middle School Administrators.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, New Orleans.

Reilly, V.E. and Dembo, M.H. (1975) Teachers' views of inservice education: A question of confidence. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 57 (2), 126.

Robinson, J.J. (1977) The principal in the classroom. *NASSP Bulletin,* 61 (413), 30-3.

Rogus, J.F. and Martin, M. (1979) The principal and staff development: Continuing the school culture. *NASSP Bulletin* 63 (423), 81-7.

Schmitt, L. and Carl, M. (1980) How to go back to the classroom and learn something new about yourself. *National Elementary Principal,* 59 (3), 49-52.

Stanton, M. (1980) Issues in the professional development of secondary school principals. *Journal of Educational Administration,* 18 (2), 213-23.

Sweeney, J. (1981) Principal internships - A look at the facts. *Education,* 102 (2), 151-3.

Washington Roosevelt, Jr. and Chisholm, G.B. (1979) Considerations in the design and implementation of the staff development programs and activities. *Planning and Changing,* 10 (3), 181-8.

Weldy, G.R. (1979) Principals are instructional leaders. It's a fact - not a myth. *NASSP Bulletin,* 63 (423), 71-6.

Willis, Q. and Chapman, J.A. (1984) *Inter-personal Relations and the School Principal.* VCEA Monograph No 3. Victorian Council for Educational Administration, Melbourne.

Wood, J.M. (1982) Job rotation: Apprenticeship in school administration. *The Practising Administrator,* 4 (2), 6-9.

Yarger, S.M., Howey, K.R. and Joyce, B.K. (1980) *In-service Teacher Education.* Booksend Lab., Palo Alto, Cal.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL-FOCUSED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION: THE SOUTH AUSTRALIAN EXPERIENCE

Marelle Harisun

Current practice in South Australian schools in professional development links with curriculum and organisation development in 'School Development'. A survey (Harisun 1983) showed that more than one-third of SA schools were implementing year-long programs of School Development. These programs integrated the needs of the whole school community, small groups, individuals and networks within and beyond the school. Priorities were implemented in a plan funded by the appropriate Professional Development Committee. Curriculum development and implementation was seen as only one focus for professional development within the school.

This approach has been extended across education sectors since 1984. Most schools now adopt the School Development approach, funded or not.

Key resources have been a 'facilitative, adult educator' principal, advisors/consultants/superintendents of schools working as process consultants for whole school change, time and time management, and coordination of education system resources. Within school time and extra negotiable staffing have facilitated the growth of this approach.

Introduction

In an interview survey of professional development (PD) practices of staffs in 93 (10 per cent proportionally representative stratified random sample of) South Australian (SA) schools (Harisun 1983), the usual initial response when asked 'What professional development activities does your school community become involved in?', was 'We don't do much professional development in this school'. Several pages of notetaking later the comment was, 'We've really done a lot, haven't we? But curriculum development has been our major focus – and I can't see how you can separate curriculum from professional development.'

The basic assumption of this discussion is that curriculum processes are undertaken by people, people develop professionally as they engage in curriculum processes, and that *one* purpose of PD is to carry out curriculum processes for improved classroom practice and learning outcomes. As people participate in PD activities, they are likely to become more effective in curriculum. Because curriculum involves people in making decisions, in small or large groups or individually, in the context of a particular school and its community, PD for curriculum needs a broader focus than learning to plan, implement and evaluate a curriculum, perceived as a rational, logical exercise of writing words on paper.

The 'school-focused' approach to curriculum means that the school community (administrators, teachers, ancillary, parents, and community members) are the participants and that the school context must be taken seriously. The school as a social system (the ways the school is structured, human and other resources are used, the complexity of interpersonal processes, interacting with and affecting curriculum) are also necessary focuses for PD. Professional development activities, therefore, should include opportunities to increase understandings and skills in these other aspects of teaching roles, to adequately support curriculum decision-making processes. Where these other aspects are ignored, they may well undermine the intended curriculum. When made overt, they are part of the curriculum; otherwise they are the 'hidden curriculum', perhaps inconsistent with the intended/stated curriculum. These other aspects of a school facilitate or militate against achievement of our curriculum and goal of better learning for students in classrooms.

Trends in Research

The last decade has brought increasing evidence that teachers make changes in classroom practice, but cannot do so effectively in the long term without support from the school community (Harisun 1983). Individuals proceed through several stages of concern and levels of use when engaged in implementing classroom change (Hall and Loucks, 1978). Since the RAND study (McLaughlin and Berman 1977), there is increasing recognition that people (individually and collectively) need preparation for change, understanding of the relationship between curriculum and organisational change, and awareness of the interaction between these two aspects and PD (Mann 1978; McLaughlin and Marsh 1978; Schiffer 1978; Lieberman and Miller 1981; Little 1981; Miller 1981; Bank 1982; Harisun 1984). Thus, there has been growing emphasis on 'school development', bringing together professional, organisational, and curriculum development for more effective educational outcomes.

This paper assumes that school-focused PD and School Development are synonymous, being activities

> conducted by the school community itself at the school or away from the school at conference centres, regional education centres, motels, other school or community locations. (Harisun 1984, 1)

In the above mentioned survey of PD practices in SA schools, reported activities were conducted for

the whole school community;
groups within the school community;
individuals; and
'networks' of individuals or schools with the same professional/curriculum interests.

In approximately one-third of sample schools, PD was organised in a one year plan, catering for most or all of these participants, in a deliberate, systematic, long-term, school-initiated and school-controlled approach called School Development.

In SA schools, the most frequent focus of PD activities was the school's curriculum and associated processes. Interpersonal processes (relating, communicating, making decisions, self assertiveness) were the second most frequent focus. School structure (policies, responsibilities, rules, student welfare schemes) and use of human and material resources (parents, time, curriculum materials, library, School Council, and parents undertaking a Learning Assistance Program) were less frequent focuses. Least frequent was surveying community needs as a basis for curriculum development.

More than 50 per cent of schools reported their most frequent strategies for the whole staff. Activities for individuals were more frequent than those for staff/other groups (faculty, year level, curriculum/interest area) and least frequent were those for networks of schools or individuals. In all, 77 different strategies were being used for PD in these schools. The examples of PD approaches that follow are largely taken from current SA practice, and discussed according to order of frequency in the SA survey (Harisun 1983).

The Education Department of SA, with cooperation from the South Australian Institute of Teachers, makes particular provisions supporting school-focused PD. The principal has ultimate responsibility for many decisions. School staffs return to duty two days before students commence the academic year. Schools are also allowed one pupil free day per year for PD, with the approval of their School Council, provided adequate provision is made for those students whose parents cannot supervise them at home. Other pupil free days can be granted by the area education authority. Teachers are entitled to one observation day per term. Primary school teachers have two hours per week non-contact time, built into staffing, and all schools can apply for additional negotiable staffing to release staff for PD or for other specific curriculum initiatives. The Area Director is responsible for allocating negotiable staffing to schools in the area, according to school, area and system priorities. Additionally, some secondary schools have instituted 'flexitime' for staff and students, for greater curriculum flexibility. Some schools shorten lunch hours or periods, and close slightly earlier on some days or for periods of time, with parental permission, for induction and other PD programs. The following information on SA current practice should be seen in this specific context of support for school-based initiatives.

Some Examples of Professional Development in Schools

Where a school is engaged in developing curriculum plans or policy for classroom implementation, it is advisable to involve the whole school community, perhaps including students, in the decision-making process about both curriculum and PD (Johnson and Yeakey 1977; Schiffer 1978;

Mann 1978; Emrick and Peterson 1980; Little 1981; Massey 1981; McPherson 1981; Miller 1981; Cohen and Harrison 1982; De Bevoise 1982; Edd 1982; Edelfelt 1982; Gress 1983; Purington 1983; Harisun 1983).

Approaches Suitable for the Whole School Community

Where a school or network takes a long-term view of its curriculum, other activities can be organised as support.

One approach is for the school to set out a 'curriculum map', defining a three-to-five year plan for curriculum, identifying annual focuses for planning (P) or raising awareness (A), implementing (I), and monitoring/evaluating (M), the acronym AIM. This approach enables priority setting for a manageable curriculum task, in contrast to covering the whole curriculum in one year, with resulting 'burn-out'. A series of whole staff, small group and individual PD activities can then be planned using the AIM plan.

A network on South East Eyre Peninsula (SEEP) brought together teachers, ancillary, and interested parents from five schools for a residential conference the week before school resumed, 1984. Participants' families were invited to have a holiday, and join the group for meals and social activities. The community spent two days identifying needs and priorities for the whole network, groups of fewer schools, interest groups across schools, and individual schools. Processes used were adapted from *Resources for Australian Inservice Educators* (RAISE 1983). SEEP schools then had a year program for interpersonal skill development for the total network, curriculum planning activities for groups of schools or individual schools, and had identified regional curriculum adviser support needed for workshops and other school-focused activities, a School Development Plan (SDP).

An isolated Area School mobilised a team of regional advisers, principal education officer and SD adviser to work with them during 1984, to assist in curriculum and related processes. A mid-year week was set aside for a team visit to work out plans for implementing priorities related to the perceived achievement of stated school objectives. The 'outside' team worked with staff groups in classrooms, observed practice and interviewed staff about individual priorities.

Advisers and staff met in the normally timetabled PD time of two-hour blocks. Advisers taught beside teachers as possibilities were explored. Finally, a pupil-free day was used for a staff conference, with School Council approval. Needs were confirmed, priorities set, and across-the-school groups planned action for two major priorities (curriculum relevance and interpersonal communication/decision-making skills). An implementation timeline, responsibilities, contracts for specific purpose visits by advisers were negotiated. Task groups later designed a new approach to Senior Secondary curriculum, conducted a survey of parental and employer attitudes to new approaches, evaluated the school's community languages program, and negotiated a system of participatory decision-making.

Some schools identify concerns and set priorities each term, with a series of events planned accordingly. A variety of activities are built into such a program.

In a secondary school, staff interviewed senior students about their likes and dislikes about, and desired additions to the school curriculum. Senior students then interviewed groups from other year levels, taping responses. Sections of these tapes were played to begin the whole staff, one day conference. Major student ideas were listed. Across-faculty staff groups listed their 'dreams' for the curriculum – what they would do if they had all needed resources. Immediate and longer term possibilities for action were identified from collated suggestions. Volunteer groups carried out action planning or developed proposals, while a PD committee coordinated the whole operation.

A Special Education Support Team (teachers and ancillary) held a two-day residential conference for long-term planning. Their role with schools, teachers and students was clarified, implied functions/actions identified, needed skills and knowledge listed, and a series of PD activities planned. Resource persons and activity coordinators were identified for the focus of 'skills for social living', a SA curriculum priority. Staff felt that acquisition of these skills would better equip them to model and assist others to implement them in classrooms.

A Junior Primary school in SA held a one-day conference (pupil-free) to develop their school creative writing policy. They began by describing and checking agreement about the desirability of current practice, listed their beliefs about the writing process, reached consensus about eight major belief statements, and planned the policy documenting process. In their reflection, they realised they had been using the same processes implemented in classroom writing activities.

Activities suitable for inclusion in similar programs are:

- professional development staff meetings;
- curriculum staff meetings;
- workshops during or after school hours;
- commissioning an individual to attend an external inservice activity, with commitment to follow-up workshop(s) to pass on new insights and plan school-based action;
- workshops outside the school, to give uninterrupted time and a fresh environment;
- visits by all staff to observe practice in another school;
- an associated professional reading program about issues under review.

Such events need resources of people, time and some funding. These may be available from the Education authority concerned (negotiable staffing, teacher release days/time, pupil-free days) or from the school budget or relevant project.

Some benefits and problems

Benefits of school community involvement include ownership of the decisions made and commitment to implementing actions. Time can be used in the most effective way, and school support services coordinated to suit ongoing school needs.

Major problems can be making time available for planning, knowing appropriate processes, and being tempted to take on too many tasks for the time available.

Some Approaches for Individual Professional Development

Individual school community members can participate in curriculum processes for improved professional practice. The Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall *et al.* 1978) suggests seven stages of teacher concern when implementing new classroom practice. Appropriate strategies being practised in SA schools are related to these stages.

Raising awareness

Teachers' initial concern about a curriculum change is 'I don't really know much about this'. In this stage, the school community can provide supporting activities such as:

- appointing a key teacher skilled in the area, to inform and demonstrate the approach in practice;
- calling in a subject or methodology adviser to conduct an awareness-raising workshop;
- setting aside time for the principal-teacher discussion of the approach;
- encouraging the person to attend a related inservice activity;
- releasing the person to observe in another classroom within or beyond the school;
- arranging a short-term exchange between schools, to broaden experience;
- encouraging the person to undertake a postgraduate study course in the curriculum area to provide relevant reading on the topic.

Developing understanding

Once teachers have some knowledge about a new practice, they usually feel 'I know a little about it, but I'd like to know more'. At this stage the school community can offer:

- skills workshops by experienced teachers/advisers;
- demonstrations by key teachers/advisers;
- observation days to gather information from another school, teachers' centre or tertiary institution;
- a program of professional reading, with staff meeting discussion;

- tutoring by another teacher, or teamwork with a more experienced person;
- working with a group to develop an implementation proposal;
- appointment as a key teacher, with time provided to acquire knowledge and skills;
- assistance in developing a 'personal growth plan', setting out objectives, activities to undertake, resources needed, and criteria for judging achievement of objectives.

Personal concerns

The next concern is 'How will this affect me personally?' Most of the above strategies can assist. The person may also need:

- a regular time of consultation/counselling with the principal, senior staff member or key teacher, to work through their concerns and affirm their ability to try this new venture;
- attendance at support network gatherings, to see that others have 'made it';
- positive feedback based on objective observation of their classroom successes, to boost self-esteem.

Management concerns

Once a person has begun a new approach, the next concern is 'Can I manage the materials, time, and classroom organisation to make this work?' The school community can support by:

- enabling the person to work with a peer, to obtain feedback, perhaps in a clinical or developmental supervision approach;
- assisting in a deliberate evaluation of practice and outcomes;
- providing support for the individual's own action research;
- encouraging the keeping of a journal or diary of significant events, and successes to facilitate reflection on experience;
- timetabling observation visits for comparison and assurance.

Consequences

Consequence concerns are 'How can I do this so that learners benefit more?' In addition to many of the above strategies, the individual can be encouraged to:

- write an evaluation or case study report for discussion and feedback;
- conduct discussions with peers in a support network to improve practice;
- identify 'critical friends' or 'mentors' as sounding boards about new action possibilities.

Collaboration

The individual is now concerned about 'ways I can collaborate with others so students will benefit even more'. People can be encouraged to work together in:

- unit teams;
- task groups;
- curriculum planning teams;
- peer supervision approaches;
- support networks within/beyond the school;

and any other approaches that will bring people out from 'behind the classroom door'.

Refocusing

The person now feels, 'I know a better way of doing this'. The school community can:

- appoint the person as key teacher;
- provide time for discussion of new ideas;
- facilitate visits of resource people to the school, or of the person to talk with more experienced people about plans;
- identify appropriate inservice/postgradute courses that could further develop the ideas;
- encourage the person to apply for assessment for promotion.

In one Reception-Year 7 country school, staff involved the School Development adviser as consultant for PD. Each teacher identified some aspect of their classroom practice about which they wanted objective feedback or desired discussion. A contract was negotiated with each person, appropriate observation techniques developed, observations made, information analysed, and a conference held with each teacher to present and discuss results where this was appropriate. Some foci were:

- amount of attention paid to girls compared to boys;
- the conferencing process in writing;
- attention paid to groups in a changed classroom arrangement;
- amount of independent work by students;
- direction of teacher-pupil interactions;
- educational philosophy underlying practice;
- teacher librarian support for classroom curriculum;
- peer group teaching implementation.

Most of the SD adviser's work used the clinical supervision approach, with no judgements made about the meaning of the results by the adviser. Teachers then were encouraged to identify their stage of concern about their innovation, and given ideas on PD possibilities for moving into further stages.

The school's SD program thus began with individual PD activities, later moving on to identifying common, whole school community PD concerns for the rest of the year.

Benefits and problems for the individual

Systematic PD in a personal growth plan, as above, can give individuals greater professional satisfaction, and revitalise the daily teaching task. However, there is evidence that individuals do not continue to innovate, or that they try new ideas using familiar methodology, unless they receive support from their work community. The school community needs to 'own' the individual's action, even if others are not doing the same, and provide public recognition and positive feedback. Individuals do not change in isolation from or without the support of the school community.

Some Approaches for Group Professional Development

In this context, 'group' is taken to mean a faculty, year level, curriculum emphasis, interest area or support network of people. Many of the above strategies can be used by groups, focusing on curriculum/professional development.

Faculty

In a secondary or Reception-Year 12 school, the faculty group can:

- use faculty meetings for PD;
- visit another school as a group, to see ideas in practice;
- attend an inservice activity together, so consequent decisions are based on common experience;
- spend a block of time outside the school location preparing joint plans or submissions;
- review each other's curriculum/other proposals in peer review.

Year level

In any type of school, persons who work with the same year level can participate in:

- year level planning meetings and ideas exchanges;
- team teaching or tutoring;
- group visits to classrooms (inter and intra-school);
- after-school workshops, perhaps extended to include an evening meal;
- action research about a common concern;
- postgraduate study in the same course/unit, meeting for seminar discussion and group assignments (common practice on Yorke Peninsula and the Port Pirie district schools).

Curriculum groups

Groups sharing the same curriculum responsibilities, perhaps broader than subject areas (for example, problem solving, communication, social living skills) can engage in:

- committee meetings to prepare plans;
- support groups with a key teacher, or for each other;
- group inservice attendance;
- group action research, evaluation or situation analysis.

Interest groups

Interest groups may be broadened to include parents and ancillary staff, participating in:

- network meetings, during or after school time, with or without a meal;
- parent skill development courses to equip them to assist in classrooms;
- a short-term, specific task group;
- an induction program for newly appointed staff and/or new parents.

Benefits and problems

Benefits from working in groups include mutual support and encouragement (a key element in maintaining change), shared responsibility, a wider range of ideas, and higher commitment to action outcomes. Problems may arise where groups cannot have common release time or meet for short time blocks, or where there are inadequate group/curriculum process skills.

Networks

A common practice in SA, especially in small and rural schools, is of schools forming a network for:

- sharing the task of curriculum documentation;
- pooling/sharing curriculum materials;
- planning and implementing professional development activities, often with shared negotiable staffing to release people from each school at the same time;
- engaging in action research on a common issue;
- undertaking postgraduate study, as in the Eight Schools Project (a network of eight small, rural schools);
- peer supervision and feedback about new practices.

These networks are of similar schools, differing types of schools geographically close, or schools with similar concerns (Ten Schools Project – primary schools focused on multicultural education). This form of resource pooling supports long-term implementation.

Some Emerging Principles

The above approaches to PD demonstrate the importance of:

- the principal and/or senior staff being able to facilitate processes;
- commencing with staff concerns, for ownership of the program;
- identifying who, how, when, timing resources needed and evaluation in relation to each decision about what will be done;
- involving parents and students whenever possible;
- being aware of available resources and coordinating them for school needs;
- sharing responsibility for implementation with a key teacher or Professional Development Committee or appropriate task group;
- coordination of system and school-based resources and priorities;
- availability and effective use of time (SA schools generally agreed this is the major resource).

Overview

In the SA survey, regularly cited school-focused PD resources were using a curriculum timeline, a facilitative principal, skilled staff members, negotiable staffing, releasing staff, a time management scheme, regional adviser or principal education officer involvement, and having a PD grant, all significantly related to planned PD activities. Most used resources were school-based. Where the PD focus was *teaching methods,* the most highly associated resources were long-term involvement of a regional adviser and having an annual School Development grant. It seems that coordination of regional education and PD committee resources is needed if PD is to affect classroom practice, a long-term task.

Resources and approaches considered necessary for more successful professional development were considered by more than half the schools to be (in order of frequency):

- increased PD teacher release time;
- having a school-focused PD approach;
- 'process consultant' advisers working in a long-term contract to assist the school to achieve its goals and priorities;
- school set PD priorities;
- beginning with a needs assessment;
- obtaining an annual PD grant;
- ability to release groups for blocks of time;
- PD negotiable staffing, able to be used flexibly;
- receiving positive feedback within the school;
- an 'adult educator' principal;
- inservice attendance based on needs;
- 'process consultant' principal education officers;

- funding for meals for extended after-school workshops;
- holding residential conferences for the whole school community;
- a 'good' school climate;
- practical inservice related to school needs;
- pupil-free days for conference.

A 'facilitative' principal proved highly statistically correlated with holding a staff residential conference, and interpersonal processes as the focus of PD. Long-term planned activities were highly related to a School Development grant.

The SA picture is of a variety of strategies and focuses for school-focused PD, of immense investment of time and energy (in one region 60 per cent being in teachers' own time), and of increasing incidence of School Development programs. However, schools generally need to give greater attention to involving parents and ancillary staff in school community PD activities, so that school and home may work in concert for better teaching in better schools.

References

Bank, A. (1982) Can evaluation plus staff development equal school improvement? *Journal of Staff Development,* 3 (1), 170-81.

Cohen, D. and Harrison, M. (1982) *Curriculum Action Project: Report to Education Research and Development Committee.* Macquarie, Sydney.

De Bevoise, W. (1982) *Collegiality may be the password to effective inservice programs.* Center for Educational Policy and Management, Oregon University.

Edd, L. (1982) *Selling your staff on staff development.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, San Francisco.

Edelfelt, R.A. (1982) *Review and evaluation. Staff development for school improvement program 1981-1982.* National Centre on Teaching and Learning, Eastern Michigan University.

Emrick, J.A. and Peterson, S.M. (1980) *School practitioner involvement in the improvement of practice: Review and synthesis.* Department of Education, Washington DC.

Gress, J.R. *et al.* (1983) *A staff development model for changing school climate.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association, Montreal.

Hall, G.E. and Loucks, S. (1978) Teachers' concerns as a basis for facilitating and personalising staff development. *Teachers' College Record,* 80 (1), 36-53.

Harisun, M. (1983) *A survey of professional development practices in South Australian Schools: Report to the State Professional Development Committee.* Commonwealth Schools Commission, Professional Development Committee (SA), Adelaide.

Harisun, M. (1984) *School Development Programmes: Guidelines.* Commonwealth Schools Commission, Professional Development Committee (SA), Adelaide.

Johnston, G.S. and Yeakey, C.C. (1977) Administrators' and teachers' preferences for staff development. *Planning and Changing,* 8 (4), 230-8.

Lieberman, A. and Miller, L. (1981) Synthesis of research on improving schools. *Educational Leadership,* 38 (7), 583-6.

Little, J.W. (1981) *School success and staff development: The role of staff development in urban desegregated schools. Executive summary.* Centre for Action Research, Boulder, Colorado.

Mann, P.H. (1978) Training teachers to work with the handicapped. *National Elementary Principal,* 58, 14-20.

Massey, S. *et al.* (1981) *Staff Development in Secondary Schools.* Department of Education, Washington DC.

McLaughlin, M.W. and Berman, P. (1978) *The art of retooling educational staff development in a period of retrenchment. The Rand Paper. Series P-5985.* The Rand Corporation Publications Department, Santa Monica, Ca.

McLaughlin, M.W. and Marsh, D.D. (1978) Staff development and school change. *Teachers' College Record,* 80 (1), 69-94.

McPherson, B. (1981) Are they in roses? Teachers and staff development. *Journal of Education,* 163 (2), 120-34.

Miller, L.P. (1981) *Delivery systems in a time of change.* Annual Meeting of the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, Williamsburg, Va.

Purington, M. (1983) *Three keys to successful staff development: Evaluation, participant planning and school-based programming.* Northeastern Florida Educational Consortium's Teacher Education Center, Bostwick.

Resources for Australian Inservice Education on behalf of State Professional Development Committees, 1983.

Schiffer, J. (1978) A framework for staff development. *Teachers' College Record,* 80 (1), 4-22.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SCHOOL LEVEL EVALUATION

Neil Russell

Evaluation in Australian schools is something of a growth industry. The removal of school inspectors from some government and non-government systems, the increased responsibility of teachers for curriculum design and assessment of students and the wave of new undergraduate and graduate teacher education courses in evaluation in tertiary institutions has created pressure for new roles for classroom teachers.

This paper briefly reviews changes to curriculum evaluation policy and practice for Australian teachers and presents practical procedures for school level evaluation based on Australian research findings.

Key characteristics of evaluation procedures of use to classroom teachers are described in terms of evaluation planning (roles and management), implementing the evaluation plan and handling evaluation outcomes. The evaluation characteristics enable teachers to form a framework for planning and implementing evaluation processes at the school level.

Evaluation Concepts Used in Australia

Introduction

In the first section a discussion of the term evaluation is provided in an attempt to reduce some of the semantic confusion associated with it.

This is followed by a brief discussion of conditions influencing the development of a broad role for Australian teachers in evaluation. Finally, on the basis of teachers' experience in schools, some practical examples of defining, devising and evaluating programs are provided.

Evaluation

The Oxford Dictionary defines *evaluation* as 'the act of evaluating' and *to evaluate* is 'to work out the value of'. This definition links evaluation to the idea of values and the act of valuing. Used as a noun it implies goodness, rightness, virtue and worthwhileness in terms of what people think is good, or believe is right. Used as a verb it implies that something is judged to have value or that it is valued because it is desired. However, definitions of the term 'evaluation' in an education context are contentious and have varied considerably in the last twenty years.

Some Changes Influencing Teachers' Evaluation Roles in Schools

The late 1960s and early 1970s in Australia was a period of reappraisal of education in general, and the promotion of achieving equality of opportunity in particular. To these ends, the federal government made available funds for a variety of educational initiatives; administrative structures were changed, with greater power and responsibility for the curriculum being given in schools. Although not initially recognised by all state and federal education authorities during the early seventies, this responsibility included school level curriculum evaluation.

The nature of the schools' responsibility in school level evaluation was not clear from the outset. As overt and traditional structures such as inspectors' visits, standardised curriculum and external examinations disappeared, concern about the purposes and effectiveness of schooling was evident in newspaper articles and press releases by both state and federal politicians. Hughes (1980, 1) identified this as a paradox and contrasted optimism for the future with pessimism about the direction in which education was heading.

Moves Towards the Teacher as Evaluator in Australia (1960s to Mid-1970s)

Loosening external controls on schooling and the concomitant shift in responsibility for curriculum decision-making away from central authorities and towards schools was a major step in preparing the ground for giving teachers greater responsibilities in evaluation. However, the degree of movement varied greatly from one education system to another.

Before these events the majority of schools were monitored by state education authorities via standardised curricula, the inspectorate and the external examination.

As acceptance of the importance of local circumstances grew, and Australian teachers were required to take a more active role in evaluation, the external control methods were found to be limiting if progress was to be made in developing the professional skills of teachers in the curriculum development and evaluation areas (Power 1983, 1). In this area policy changes and initiatives to increase responsibility for school level curriculum decision-making were in advance of the skills and knowledge of teachers to implement them.

Thus there existed a need in Australia to help teachers with their new-found power to influence and improve education and to help them make decisions about the curriculum. This was acknowledged by the Curriculum Development Centre in the following terms:

> Ongoing evaluation, particularly at the school level, would seem to provide the best basis for improvement of curricula. This would appear to be true no matter at which level curriculum is determined or whatever the curriculum ideas and materials being generated. (CDC Study Group Report 1977, 3)

At the same time there was a growing realisation that if teachers are given greater freedom to make decisions about curriculum matters, then they also had to take greater responsibility for their decisions. In other words, teachers must be able to account for and, if necessary defend the curriculum decisions they were making (Fensham 1980). To this end, school level curriculum evaluation was identified as one means of answering calls for accountability (Shears 1974).

In this way a move towards increased school-level evaluation in Australia in the mid-1970s was predicated on two pragmatic purposes:

(a) to assist teachers to collect and use information for decision-making to improve educational offerings; and

(b) to assist teachers to publicly account for their educational decisions and practices.

Summary

Prior to the 1960s the payment by results system, secondary school external examinations and the role of the inspectors combined to inhibit a wider role in evaluation by classroom teachers. However with social and political changes in the community and administrative and organisational changes in schools from the early 1960s came demands for teachers to accept new roles and responsibilities in the evaluation area. With these demands came the need for teachers to develop skills in the area of evaluating programs at the school level and the necessity to support them in this skill acquisition.

Developing a List of Evaluation Processes for Australian Teachers as Evaluators

In this section, a list of evaluation processes that teachers need in order to operate as teachers as evaluators will be discussed. The need for such a list has emerged from the bewildering array of policy statements and other system level evaluation documents presently available across Australia (Hughes, Russell and McConachy 1981), and the limited provision made for evaluation courses in some teacher education programs. The list of processes was developed in three stages:

- first, by preparing a list of evaluation processes for teachers as evaluators from education department policy statements and research information available;
- second, by asking teachers and school principals to review the initial list, to use it in their schools, and suggest modifications;
- third, by examining the school level curriculum evaluation reports prepared by 50 final year teacher education students enrolled in an evaluation course which was designed to develop the processes in the list.

Processes that are Expected of Teachers as Evaluators in School-Level Evaluation Situations

In some respects, this development of a list of processes parallels the development of key characteristics of evaluation suggested by Maling-Keepes

(1976). The essential differences are the purposes of the exercise and the audience for whom it is intended. The Maling-Keepes set of characteristics appears to have been designed primarily for professional evaluators contracted to evaluate large-scale projects used in a number of education settings: 'The purpose of the characteristics is to enable comparisons between evaluations and to serve as pointers to evaluation questions that need to be addressed'. (Maling Keepes 1976, 25)

The processes are designed for teachers rather than professional evaluators, and are arranged to enable guidelines or signposts to the planning and implementation of curriculum evaluations at the individual school level and are presented in the form of guidelines in Table 1 with key elements identified for each of the four processes. The processes provide a convenient framework for the analysis of planning, implementation and outcomes of a curriculum evaluation program at the school level.

The first process relates to the 'why' and 'what' issues planning school based evaluation. The second, to the 'who', 'how' and 'when' issues. The third, to the skills of carrying out the evaluation and the fourth to dealing with the evaluation outcomes (both anticipated and unanticipated).

Discussion of the Individual Processes

Process I Evaluation Planning – Purposes

Evaluation Process I establishes the focus, relevance, and legitimacy of the school level curriculum evaluation. If the elements in the process are not achieved the whole evaluation is likely to collapse (see later in this paper).

Describing the issue or area to be evaluated assumes that the scope of the school-based evaluation has been limited to a process that can be achieved with the resources available in the school.

A clear description of the evaluation area also permits semantic difficulties and boundary problems to be identified. For example, if the area of the evaluation in a primary school was the 'health education program' it would be necessary to clarify just what this meant to members of the school community (teachers and parents).

The purpose of a school-level evaluation needs to be developed quite explicitly. If the purpose of an evaluation is to improve teaching and learning and is of a 'collegial' type involving teachers in control of the evaluation process, then teachers can make reasonable assumptions about the way in which information collected will be used and controlled. If the purpose of the evaluation is for accountability reasons and of the 'accreditation' type to provide an account of a program to a central authority, then the nature of teachers' involvement and the ways in which information will be used can be predicted.

Obtaining the endorsement and support of all of those who have a stake in the evaluation, is vital for any evaluation exercise which depends on collecting valid and reliable information from program participants. House

Table 1. Summary of Evaluation Process

PROCESS I EVALUATION PLANNING - PURPOSES

Elements in the Process

1 (A) Describe the issue or area to be evaluated.
2 (B) State the purposes of this evaluation.
3 (C) Obtain the endorsement and support from interested parties.
4 (D) Identify likely opponents to the evaluation - and attempt to meet objections.
5 (E) State the motives for the evaluation (why is it being undertaken now).
6 (F) Identify the intended audiences for any evaluation reports.

PROCESS II EVALUATION PLANNING - ROLES AND MANAGEMENT

Elements in the Process

7 (A) Identify the personnel of those participating in the evaluation.
8 (B) Identify the roles of any outsiders to the evaluation (facilitator, evaluator, consultant).
9 (C) Estimate the time to be spent on the evaluation.
10 (D) Estimate the financial costs of the evaluation.

PROCESS III IMPLEMENTING THE EVALUATION PLAN

Elements in the Process

11 (A) Collect information using appropriate school-level information gathering methods.
12 (B) Use safeguards to ensure that school-level information is reliable and valid.
13 (C) Analyse school-level information collected.
14 (D) State procedures governing the release of school-level information.

PROCESS IV HANDLING EVALUATION OUTCOMES

Elements in the Process

15 (A) Prepare reports in a form suited to the intended audience.
16 (B) Identify the decisions that the results of the evaluation may contribute, to
17 (C) Identify the advantages and disadvantages of the evaluation process used.

(1973) sees the involvement of stake holders as part of the politics of evaluation and McDonald (1977) as a democratic approach to evaluation.

There may be differences between the purpose of an evaluation and the motives for undertaking it. At a Catholic secondary school the staff decided (in 1980) to conduct an evaluation of the elective modern language program for years 9 to 12 in order to improve teaching and learning. On the face of it this purpose appears clear and relatively uncomplicated. Some probing as to why the evaluation was being undertaken at that time, revealed that the number of students taking the elective program had dropped in two years from 138 to 27 and several staff positions were in jeopardy.

Information of this type would make one suspect that while the stated purpose of an evaluation may be improvement oriented, in some circumstances the motives of the evaluation proponent may be quite different.

Process II Evaluation Planning Roles and Management

Once the purposes of the evaluation have been determined, including an endorsement of interested parties who have a stake in the evaluation, it is necessary to identify those within the school community who will be participants in the evaluation process.

The implementation of evaluation findings is greatly enhanced if those who have to make decisions on findings have participated in the planning process. This suggests that if there were to be an evaluation of the physical education program in an infants' department of a primary school that personnel involved might include:

- the teacher coordinating physical education;
- the teachers teaching in the program;
- any ancillary staff assisting with the program, and parents.

Establishing the roles of outsiders to an evaluation is crucial to the success of school-level initiatives. Marsh and Stafford (1984) have reported on evaluations that could not be completed as a result of role confusion of outsiders participating in evaluations at the school-level.

The most vocal complaint of teachers participating in school-level evaluation work in the experience of Teachers as Evaluators personnel (Russell 1983) was that the process took too much time. In most cases this problem could have been overcome by reducing the scope of evaluation initiatives attempted, and being more focused on just what information was required to achieve evaluation goals. The other aspect of time is a management concern. The last few weeks of term III is such a busy time for most schools who are preparing reports, interviewing students and parents, modifying programs and staffing for the next year, that evaluation concerns are not a high priority. There is a need to budget the time made available for evaluation so that it does not conflict with administrative concerns (such as preparing staffing returns) that are immovable feats. Some education departments (for example the ACT Schools Authority) have recognised the need to release teachers for short periods of time to allow them to plan and implement school-level evaluations. Other systems have made this almost impossible. If the collegial approach to evaluation is endorsed by all education departments then provision of this type will have to be considered by all education authorities.

While the financial costs of a school-level evaluation are usually not large (unless there are unusually voluminous reports printed or consultants to be paid), opportunity costs are large. For example, if a group of teachers decide to evaluate the social science program over a period of 10 weeks then the time available for other activities such as program planning, marking or reading would be reduced. For most schools the main cost is in time taken by personnel, and the cost has to be measured in terms of what other activities have to be foregone.

To sum up, identifying the evaluation roles of personnel both inside and outside the school and the destination of reports are skills that need to be developed. Managing the use of time is an important consideration that should be taken account of in early planning stages of a school-level evaluation.

Process III Implementing the Evaluation Plan

The nature of information-gathering methods used for a particular school-level evaluation will depend on the purposes of the evaluation, and the knowledge and skill of those involved. Techniques such as unobtrusive measures, participant observers, and open-ended interviews offer a general format that have been used elsewhere, but will differ in specific format from school to school. Instruments that have been carefully planned, trialled and validated elsewhere are available for use when comparisons with other programs are called for. 'Home-made' instruments (test, scales, interview schedules, surveys) that have not been tried out systematically prior to the evaluation can also be used with a specific school evaluation and interpreted for use in that school, although these instruments do not normally permit information gathered to be generalised to other schools.

If information gathered is to be valid, the results of the procedures should reflect accurately the program or area being evaluated. This means that data-gathering instruments should be appropriate for the purposes of the evaluation, and the overall approach to the evaluation should address the key questions posed in the evaluation planning stage.

The analysis of information again needs to be appropriate for the stated evaluation purposes but must also take into account the time and other resources that are available for evaluation participants, and the way that results will be made available to the target audience.

Ownership of evaluation information is a matter of vital concern to all those involved with a school-level evaluation. It is important that agreements entered into at the commencement of a school-level evaluation are kept – or renegotiated and that professional standards of ethics with regard to colleagues and the confidentiality of data are preserved.

Process IV Handling Evaluation Outcomes

The form of evaluation report should be designed to communicate to the relevant audience. In this regard, reports in some cases need not be reports in print form (or of the telephone book size witnessed in some schools). Reports can be oral, in audiovisual format or written, and could be formal or informal depending on the evaluation purpose of the evaluation and the audience.

Whichever medium or combination of media are chosen, the report should be clear and free of jargon, well organised and concise. While some necessary decisions may be taken while the evaluation is in progress, it is necessary to identify which decisions need to be made and by whom. If all of those with a stake in the evaluation results have been included in the evaluation process, then the implementation of the findings should not present insurmountable difficulties.

Using the List of Evaluation Processes

Introduction

The Australian Capital Territory (ACT) represents a favourable setting to determine whether the processes identified in Table 1 can be achieved with appropriate support.

The ACT policy on school-level evaluation strongly emphasises the 'collegial' approach to school-based evaluation, giving considerable responsibility to teachers for school-level evaluation.

Additionally, the author was involved in both the generation of the evaluation processes list, and all teacher training courses in the school-level evaluation area for the ACT.

Students (N = 50) in the final year of the undergraduate B.Ed. program at the Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAE) are required to complete the unit 'Evaluation in Education', whether they are preparing for teaching in the early childhood, primary, TAFE or secondary areas. Over half of the students (64%) are already full time teachers with appointments in ACT schools who are attempting to upgrade qualifications gained earlier. The remainder are students who teach on a part-time or relief basis (28%) or who are full time or part time students without any regular attachment to a school (other than three weeks for practice teaching). This mix of students with nearly 92% having ready access to a school for an evaluation exercise as a member of staff enables the competencies to be reviewed in a realistic school setting.

To determine whether the evaluation processes could be achieved in a school situation, students are required to conduct a school-level curriculum evaluation as the main assessment requirement of the unit.

The assignment requires the teacher-education students to take responsibility for the entire evaluation process in a school including negotiating entry to the school and the evaluation project, identifying the issue or area of evaluation, conducting the evaluation with staff and negotiating exit from the school.

Compiling the Results of the Student Evaluations

In semester 1, 1984, sixty-seven students completed forty separate school-level evaluation projects.

To determine whether the evaluation processes could be achieved in this formal training situation, the forty evaluations were examined for each element in each process. The evaluation projects covered a range of school situations ranging through pre-school, primary, secondary and TAFE and included a great variety of curriculum areas and issues including mathematics, reading, science, music and language development.

Process I Results

With the exception of three cases, all evaluation reports clarified the issue or area to be evaluated with sufficient clarity to be comprehended by someone not involved in the process. Evaluation purposes were expressed clearly and demonstrated that this process had been completed. The purposes can be arranged into the following categories:

(a) determining whether set objectives were met (11 cases)
(b) course improvement (16 cases)
(c) meeting course accreditation requirements (2 cases)
(d) description of a program (8 cases).

Not all of the teachers involved in the evaluations obtained endorsements from stake holders in the evaluation. Those endorsements that were obtained were informal in nature and incomplete when compared with the evaluation process list.

Only three out of forty cases included parents in the endorsement process, and eleven of the forty included the principal. Thirteen of the forty cases can be seen as having obtained endorsement from all of the stake holders involved in each evaluation. This factor may have had an effect on the rather narrow information gathering methods used in the cases with incomplete endorsements, and suggests that this aspect of the CCAE course needs review.

Ten of the forty cases reported significant opposition to the evaluations at the proposal or implementation stage. Participants were not sure how to deal with these situations other than by attempting to ignore opponents altogether. This strategy led to major problems when attempts were made to implement findings. The need to develop techniques for the resolution of differences may have to be included in a more specific form as an element in this evaluation process.

The motives indicated by evaluation proponents for the curriculum evaluations varied enormously and certainly do not match the evaluation motives listed in some standard textbooks (for example Tenbrink 1974).

There appears to be a difference between the stated purposes of the evaluation (typically to improve teaching and learning) and the personal motives of some proponents.

Motives revealed by the evaluation proponents can be classified into four types:

(a) problems with existing arrangements (14 cases)
(b) trial of a new program – required as part of the implementation negotiation (11 cases)
(c) to sell the idea or project to other staff (7 cases)
(d) requested by the education authority as part of course accreditation (4 cases).

In thirty-two of forty cases examined, evidence of at least three of the five elements were observed in the evaluation process. The major problem which became apparent in reviewing the use of the process was in the area of obtaining endorsement from stake holders in the evaluation. This area of negotiating and obtaining agreements, is poorly represented in the CCAE course and will need to be strengthened.

Process II Results

Personnel involved in the planning of the evaluations varied in size from a group of two to a group of twelve. Parents were listed in three of the forty planning groups and the principal in eleven. In eight cases, teachers who had a stake in the evaluation were not included in the group planning the evaluation. Interestingly (and predictably), people concerned with these eight evaluations are not having difficulty in implementing the findings of the evaluation.

The amount of time needed for each evaluation was greatly underestimated by participants. In one case, the extent of the underestimation was 800%, and every project reported substantial underestimates of the time needed for the evaluation. The observation that teachers believed that school-level evaluation was very time-consuming has been made in previous studies. The extent to which time needed for a school-level curriculum evaluation has been underestimated. The implication of this finding is that the concept of whole school evaluation becomes even more problematic than has previously been suggested.

The mean predicted time for an evaluation was 10.2 hours whereas the mean time claimed for evaluations was 34 hours. Even taking into account the possibility of students inflating the time spent to impress their lecturer, the commitment of time is considerable. Teachers and their principals need to be able to order or re-order priorities to enable teachers to be relieved of some tasks while evaluation work is in progress.

The financial cost of evaluations to the teachers in terms of cash expended was quite low with the median cost of $10. The only expenses incurred were for printing, some transport costs and small amounts of typing. In some cases all expenses for printing, typing paper and other materials were met by the school or completed as routine school business. Major expense could be involved if teachers were replaced from all teaching for a period and relief teachers paid to take their classes. (A relief teacher is paid in the order of $120 a day).

Only in one case was the evaluation report intended to be sent outside the school. In this instance, the purpose of the evaluation was to satisfy the requirement, that for accreditation purposes it was necessary to demonstrate that an evaluation had been completed. Every other evaluation report was intended for all teachers in the school.

While there might be an argument for keeping all staff informed of the results of all evaluations in the school, it is difficult to see all teachers showing interest in an evaluation of an electronic music course or a home economics course for English-as-a-second-language students. In these cases a summary sheet of key issues and findings would suffice, with a more detailed story available for staff who were stake holders in the process.

The investment of time necessary for teachers and others to commit to a school-level evaluation may be under-estimated. Involving all the stakeholders in an evaluation process is obviously time-consuming and at times requiring considerable negotiating skills and patience. It may be necessary to review aspects of the politics of evaluation in schools in order to improve the skills of teachers in this area.

Process III Results

The questionnaire is not exactly moribund as far as being used as a method for gaining information for school-based evaluation. Thirty-one cases reported that the questionnaire was used as a method for gaining information and in seven cases the questionnaire was the only method used. In only twelve cases was there an attempt to trial or validate the questionnaire with stake holders, and only one group reported in a form that suggested that they had attempted to relate survey information to other information collected. As has been noted in other evaluations by teachers the questionnaire was over-used as a technique and the actual construction of the questionnaires rather haphazard.

In thirteen cases, at least five separate methods were used to gain information. While this diversity of information gathering contributed to these four cases requiring far more time to complete than the others in the sample it also contributed to the collection of more valid information and more satisfactory reporting procedures.

There appeared to be some reluctance on behalf of the evaluators to consider samples of various populations in which they were interested. Each of the forty cases reported that they had attempted to obtain information from all students, parents and teachers involved in the issue or area under consideration. This move may have been motivated by internal political considerations, but it also adds to the amount of time necessary for the analysis of results . . . which was the main complaint of the evaluation.

Analysis methods were almost entirely restricted to producing tallies of surveys and converting these to percentages, although in two cases attempts were made to compare the results of class tests with information gathered from interviews, diaries or other methods.

A surprising result was the extent to which evaluation participants had indicated control over the release of information. There was obviously considerable sensitivity to this issue and in twenty-three of the forty cases care was taken to restrict information to stake holders.

Collecting and analysing information for school-based evaluations revealed a number of problems in the instruments used and some lack of confidence in attempting to place controls over the release of information collected. It would appear that more emphasis is needed in CCAE courses on the design and use of questionnaires and sampling methods to improve the validity of the information collected. The wide variety of information gathering methods demonstrated in half the cases reviewed indicated that this element was considered by this group.

Process IV Results

A difficulty in judging whether this process was being used, was that in all cases being reviewed, there were at least two distinct groups in the school that reports were intended for: the stake holders and the rest of the staff. The stake holders might expect to receive a full report of the evaluation process. The form of report for other teachers who were not directly involved in the evaluation is more problematic. In most cases teachers not involved directly with the area being evaluated could receive a brief summary of the evaluation process either at a staff meeting or via some other reporting process. For this exercise the adequacy of the reports was judged against the likely needs of the stake holder group. Using this group as the major intended audience, thirty out of forty reports showed evidence of this element of the evaluation process. The ten reports that did not demonstrate this process did not attempt to present findings in a form that could be easily interpreted by teachers and parents.

In presenting findings, all cases presented a summary of decisions that needed to be made to improve teaching and learning or enable accountability procedures to be strengthened. In four cases the decisions recommended appeared to bear little relation to the information collected.

Meta-evaluation methods, or considering the strengths and limitations of evaluation procedures used, appeared to find little favour with the participants in this evaluation exercise. Only twenty-three of the forty evaluators demonstrated any interest in reviewing their evaluation processes, and one of those that did complete a meta-evaluation was required to do so by the ACT Schools Authority as part of the accreditation procedure. Interviews with the students revealed that meta-evaluation methods were not seen as crucial to the set task of improved teaching and learning using evaluation processes. One student indicated that he thought meta-evaluations were the privilege of the idle and had little place in school practice. Somewhat chastened, attempts are needed to illustrate the benefits of meta-evaluation methods with practical examples or reconsider the use of meta-evaluation in the list of evaluation processes.

Reports submitted by the CCAE group indicated that in most cases some care had been taken to present findings in a form that a stake holder group could interpret. Meta-evaluation efforts reported were almost non-existent, and it is doubtful whether the evaluators could see any practical purpose to using methods designed to assist them to review the evaluation processes they had laboured on for three months.

Findings on the Use of the Process List

The set of processes provides a framework to further understanding of school-level curriculum evaluation.

At a practical level a number of possibilities to enable teachers to improve their curriculum evaluation practices are indicated.

First, the set of processes enables a reasonably comprehensive and careful description of a particular evaluation enabling structured summaries of the evaluation to be developed. These descriptions may be abbreviated, first in the form illustrated by the table early in this chapter, and then to summary statements. Once a teacher is familiar with the set of processes it should prove possible to move rapidly to a general summary of an evaluation.

The advantage of this technique for teachers is that they can quickly review the evaluation of others. With this information it is possible to integrate this knowledge into their own evaluation needs.

Second, the processes can be used by a teacher in designing a school-level curriculum evaluation. The elements within each process present a checklist of factors that may need to be considered. For example, in process III, the control over the release of information may be an important factor in reducing the opposition of some teachers to the evaluation commencing. The processes may also be used to indicate alternatives. In the case of process II the role of any outsiders needs to be decided. This alerts teachers to the options open to them and possibly prevents role confusion. The processes do not define the nature of what should occur within every step of a particular school evaluation. What they do provide is the range and complexity of issues that need to be resolved and a framework or directions for improving the process.

Third, the processes facilitate comparisons of the policy of education authorities with school practice. For example, the ACT policy suggests that parents should be participants in the whole school-level evaluation process (ACT Schools Authority 1982). In the forty cases completed parent participation was conspicuous by its absence.

Fourth, it is possible to determine areas where evaluation concepts were not used in over 90% of the cases, questionnaires not piloted and ethical issues such as the release of information not completed.

Finally, those interested in conducting research into school-level evaluation may use the set of processes to suggest inquiries into the nature of the task and work of teachers. Two or more characteristics may be selected and used as a basis for systematic examination of the pattern of interaction shown on theme in school-level evaluations. There may for example be trade-off between the endorsement of all parties with a stake in an evaluation and the control over information. Alternatively there may be a trade-off between the role of an outsider and the scope and nature of information to be collected. Whatever the patterns of interaction if there were a sufficiently large number of case studies, the functional relationship would warrant theoretical attention.

The framework presented in the form of a list of processes has been developed over a period of six years and reflects the range of skills required by teachers to complete school-based evaluation tasks. The framework is not intended to constitute a theory, nor does it function as criteria by which to judge a particular evaluation as 'good' or 'bad'.

Rather the processes are intended to identify the key skills that teachers need in designing and implementing an evaluation at the school level. In time, with experience in applying standards to each of the elements in the process table, it may be possible to develop patterns of standards for particular school-based evaluation requirements.

References

ACT Schools Authority (1982) *Policy for Whole School Education.* Canberra.

CDC Study Group (1977) *Curriculum Evaluation.* CDC, Canberra, 3.

Fensham, P. (1980) *Giving an Account.* Vol. 1. CDC, Canberra, 2.

House, E.R. (ed.) (1973) *School Evaluation: The Politics and Process.* McCutchen, Berkeley, USA.

Hughes, P.W. (1980) A Period of Paradox: From Optimism to Uncertainty in the 1970s. *ACT Papers in Education 1979-80.* CCAE, Canberra, 1.

Hughes, P.W., Russell, N.A. and McConachy, D. (1981) Accounting for our Schools: Problems and Possibilities. *The Australian Administrator,* 2 (3).

McDonald, B. (1976) Evaluation and the Control of Education, in Tawney, D. (ed.) *Curriculum Evaluation Today: Trends and Implications.* School Council Research Studies, MacMillan, London.

Maling-Keepes, J. (1976) *Evaluation Education: Key Characteristics.* ACER, Melb.

Marsh, C. and Stafford, K. (1984) *Curriculum: Australian Practices and Issues.* McGraw-Hill, Sydney.

Power, C. (1983) Teacher Development at the School Level. *The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education,* 11 (2), 1-11.

Russell, N.A. (1983) Teachers as Evaluators in Armstrong, A. (ed.) *Developments in Australian Evaluation Research and Practice.* University of Melbourne, 81-95.

Tenbrink, T. (1974) *Evaluation: a Practical Guide for Teachers.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Shears, L. (1974) *The Teachers and the School Administrator.* Victorian Education Department, Melbourne.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH MATERIALS PRODUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION

Colin J. Marsh

Curriculum materials can be a most important vehicle for the professional development of teachers. To an increasing extent, teachers are being encouraged to develop materials at the school level. To undertake this task, skills of materials analysis and curriculum design are most important. There are also important skills involved in implementing curriculae which have been developed by external agencies. These skills include planning and scheduling skills and a willingness to monitor and evaluate activities.

Introduction

Hoyle (1982) has used the terms 'restricted professional' and 'extended professional' to express the differences between highly competent technicians and teachers who have a wider perspective of the role of school, community and society. Stenhouse (1975) argues that the professional teacher is one who has a capacity for autonomous self-development through systematic self-study. However, he is using 'self-study' not in the traditional sense of professional reading and enrolling in further education qualifications, but as self study of a teacher's classroom planning and performances.

Teachers have the task of developing, implementing and evaluating curricula to use with children in their respective classes. The term 'curriculum', as used in this paper, refers to 'all the experiences the learner has under the guidance of the school' and includes the influences of teachers and fellow students, and the use of specific curriculum materials. The professional teacher is aware of the influences of these different factors and plans the daily activities so as to maximise their impact.

In particular, curriculum materials are of major importance and in this paper attention is focused upon how materials development can foster the professional skills of teachers. Gough (1983) argues that materials development provides the medium – the tangible expressions of classroom action. At the school level, individuals and groups of teachers can become very involved in materials development. It is meaningful to them because they are producing concrete objects to overcome perceived deficiencies in their school resources. In so doing, they experience and learn to refine the skills of the curriculum planner. Once materials have been produced and are available for use in classrooms they are involved in a different set of skills, namely those of the curriculum disseminator and implementer. These activities of development and implementation do enable teachers to test ideas out in practice.

Developing Curriculum Materials at the School Level

Curriculum Materials

According to Gall (1981) 'curriculum materials' can be defined as 'physical entities, representational in nature, which are used to facilitate the learning process'. That is, curriculum materials can be printed matter, physical models and artefacts, audiovisual items and combinations of all of these. Each of them has unique qualities which can contribute to a student's learning. Furthermore, each represents something else and has no instructional significance in itself. For example, a computer program on 'Settlement patterns in Australia' might be contained on a circular floppy disk, 18 cm in diameter. It is not until the disk is inserted into a microcomputer that the representation of settlement patterns is achieved and can be comprehended by the viewer. The 'representational' aspect of curriculum materials is also useful to consider when distinguishing between other materials which are used in a teaching situation such as paper, pencils and biros, scissors. These materials do not represent anything else and so cannot be classed as curriculum materials.

It can be argued that curriculum materials are the 'tools' by which a teacher can motivate students, as well as providing them with maximum insights and understandings into the topic/problem being introduced. The resourceful teacher will use different curriculum types of lessons for specific topics and for particular groups of students (see Figure 1).

It is by using curriculum materials that a teacher can get the optimal learning conditions or 'best fit' for particular students. Compatibility with student interests and levels, and therefore maximum learning, can only occur if the teacher is watchful to provide appropriate curriculum materials. In a very real sense then, teachers can only achieve effective learning levels in their classes if the curriculum materials (tools) are appropriate.

From the students' perspective, a variety of curriculum materials enable them to choose the materials which best suit their learning styles. They may or may not be attuned to their teacher's style of presentation. Curriculum materials provide alternative forms of instruction which can reinforce and provide new insights and directions for the students. For particular activities which require students to initite the learning tasks to be undertaken (for example, in inquiry/problem-solving), the role of curriculum materials becomes even more important. Students in this situation need to be aware of sources of material, but, more important, they need to be self-aware of the types of curriculum materials which have facilitated their learning on past occasions.

The above perspectives might appear to indicate a certain determinism by teachers and students in their use of curriculum materials. To balance the picture, it should also be pointed out that curriculum materials can greatly influence/determine the activities of teachers and students. For example, the content and value stances included in many teachers' guides (and by default, the content and value stances which have been deliberately excluded), can determine very greatly what teachers include in their lessons. The format of teachers' guides and textbooks can determine the type of lessons which a teacher might provide by the inclusion of objectives, particular teaching methods, specific student activities, and even the actual items to be used in tests designed to evaluate students' understandings. Similarly, it can be argued that student workbooks and texts can determine very greatly what a student learns. Unless a wide range of curriculum materials is available in a class, it is highly likely that a student's perspectives on a specific topic will be narrowly channelled by the predilections of the producers/writers of a particular set of curriculum materials.

Figure 1. Overview of Lesson Types

Type of Lessons	Teacher activities	Student Activities	Use of Curriculum Materials
Lecture	Teacher talks	Listening, Note taking	Low
Demonstration	Teacher-directed	Observing and/or participating	Medium/High
Discussions	Teacher-directed	Listening, talking, note taking	Low
Practice drills	Teacher-directed	Note taking, writing	Low
Problem-solving, Inquiry	Teacher and/or student-directed	Seeking out information reading	High
Role-playing, Simulation Games	Teacher and/or student-directed	Acting out roles, listening, producing items	Medium/High
Computer-assisted instruction	Teacher and/or student initiated	Inputing data, analysing records	High

Opportunities for Teachers to Produce Curriculum Materials at the School Level

Teachers can and do become involved in a range of curriculum development activities at the school level. Several recent studies (for example, Cohen and Harrison 1982, Hyde 1984) indicate, however, that the production of units, work cards and teaching aids is often a preferred activity by teachers.

It can be argued that there are several good reasons why teachers will opt for the production of instructional materials. One reason is that teachers value their autonomy and independence and will prefer to undertake curriculum development activities which do not involve the use of external consultants. They are expert in their knowledge of curriculum materials and so they can embark upon specific tasks, such as designing some concrete materials for a particular teaching unit. Another reason is suggested by Huberman and Marsh (1982) when they state that teachers thrive upon 'recipe collecting and exchanging to expand their instructional repertoire'. That is, teachers are highly motivated to develop materials (for example, a teaching aid) which their peers may have told them about and which was successful for them. Teachers are very proud of their craft and will always be willing to develop and use some different instructional materials if they feel (often intuitively) that the new approach will be more successful with their class of students.

Developing new materials

Various authors have put forward guidelines about how small groups of teachers might go about the task of developing new materials. Skilbeck (1982) emphasises the need for teachers to reflect upon their present situation, to appraise their use of current materials and to gauge the needs of students and the school community before embarking upon the production of some new materials.

Sabar and Shafriri (1980) also suggest that teachers must first of all examine the needs of their respective schools but that the activities should occur at a 'natural' pace (see Decker Walker's (1971) 'Naturalistic Model') and not follow a rigid linear sequence. They suggest teachers may need to undertake a number of activities, but not in any order – such as reading up on additional background content, discussing alternative teaching approaches for the materials, considering goals for using the materials, attempting to write up explanatory notes for the use of the materials, and many other matters.

Harrison (1981) asserts that teachers, if left to their own devices, tend to be irrational in their actions and often rely upon memories of past successes, hunches and intuitions. However, over a period of time, groups of teachers will learn to regularise their activites so that they become better able to identify alternatives and to work out plans of action.

Making adaptations to existing materials

Unfortunately, there are various constraints upon teachers developing new materials. Timetables often prevent busy teachers from getting together as a team to plan their activities. Exhaustion, day-to-day crises, lack of incentives and minimal rewards are just some of the reasons why the production of completely new sets of curriculum materials are too daunting a task. But adapting existing materials is a much more manageable feat. For a start, there are often commercial examples readily available for inspection in a regional resource centre or library. Many state education systems encourage classroom teachers to build upon existing sets of materials in the knowledge that the production of new materials is often unrealistic in terms of teacher time and resource costs.

In addition to simply building upon existing sets of materials, teachers may decide to use materials analysis schemes to gain a better understanding of the properties of existing curriculum materials and thereby become better informed about which kinds of adaptations they might want to produce. For example, Piper's (1976) scheme, as outlined in his book *Evaluation in the Social Sciences*, provides four major components (goals, format, processes and outcomes) and ten sub-components to enable teachers to undertake a very economical but effective tool for analysing and evaluating curriculum items or packages. An example of one of the sub-components is illustrated in Figure 2. The use of materials analysis schemes such as this one enable teachers to pinpoint what kinds of materials they want to produce, and in addition, they can get very useful insights into the skills of curriculum development and the production of materials.

Figure 2.
A Sample Category taken from Piper's Materials Analysis System

Rationale YES NO
(i) Is a rationale for the unit provided?
(ii) Is the rationale clearly and convincingly argued?
(iii) Is the rationale adequate in explaining
  (a) the reasons for the choice of content for the unit?
  (b) the educational pedagogical principles underlying the development of the unit?
(iv) Is the rationale consistent with the aims and objectives of the unit?
(v) Are there limitations/deficiencies in the rationale not covered in your answers to the above question?
Rating: Rationale
1 2 3 4 5

(After K. Piper (1976) *Evaluation in the Social Sciences*, CDC, Canberra.)

Classroom Implementation of Curriculum Materials

Producing curriculum materials is an important aspect of curriculum development but until they are used with students in classroom situations it is possible to know whether they are viable or not. As a general rule, a teacher using a set of curriculum materials with which he/she is unfamiliar will not make optimal use of them. All kinds of problems can occur and, of course, this will be exacerbated for packages which are very complicated and comprehensive. Perhaps the sequence of activities, or the time allocated per activity by the teacher may be too rushed or too protracted. Then again, teachers may lack the necessary background to use the materials as intended and consequently they may lack the confidence and verve in their presentation to the students. The problems associated with using curriculum materials for the first time can occur for teachers even though they may have been involved in developing them. It is never possible for a developer to anticipate all the permutations which might occur in teaching a package.

Problems of implementation can be even more serious for curriculum materials which have been produced by developers external to a particular school. For example, the topics may not fit in with the existing syllabus; the materials may be too difficult or too easy for a particular group of students; the preparation of consumables, equipment and seating required prior to using the materials may be too complicated and time-consuming. These problems and many others can confront the busy teacher faced with the task of implementing a new set of curriculum materials. However, there are some planning safeguards which can and should be undertaken prior to implementing curricula and there are ways of monitoring and evaluating different levels or degrees of implementation.

Implementation of Locally Developed Curriculum Materials

If a group of teachers has been involved in developing a set of curriculum materials then it might be assumed that they are designed for particular classes of students and that the intention is to use them in the very near future. It may be only necessary for the teachers to check with each other about basic assumptions and strategies they intend to use as they go about the task of implementing the materials for the first time. These reminders might relate to such matters as:

- the time schedule and sequence they intend to follow;
- the activities they will be selecting for their students;
- the objectives they intend to emphasise.

However, no single group of teachers can operate in isolation from the activities of the total school staff. It may be necessary for the developers of the curriculum materials to communicate to other teachers about their implementation intentions, especially if it might involve:

- timetabling changes and room changes which could affect other teachers;
- excessive noise and student movement.

Presumably, the teacher-developers would have involved the school principal from the outset and so he/she would be supporting their project and giving incentives and encouragement whenever possible. Nevertheless, it would be very politic for the developers to keep the principal fully informed about their first efforts at implementing a new set of curriculum materials. The principal may need to take an active role if there is any likelihood that other teachers at the school might feel threatened or in some way disadvantaged by their implementation plans. Some ways in which the group of teachers might keep the principal informed could be by:

- providing him with a complete set of the new curriculum materials;
- offering to demonstrate and explain materials at the next staff meeting;

- inviting the principal to observe some specific lessons where the new materials will be used;
- writing a brief report for the principal after the materials have been used for the first time.

Implementation of a curriculum will generally improve with successive applications. The term 'implementation' usually refers to the first two years that teachers use a new curriculum. If it is still used by teachers beyond that period, it is said to have become 'institutionalised'. This period of time is, of course, a very crude benchmark as some teachers might become very expert with using a new curriculum after a much shorter period. It will depend upon complexity of the curriculum, the wealth of experience of the teacher, student expectations, and many other factors.

Despite these possible variations between teachers, most would agree that it is desirable to evaluate implementation efforts so that judgements can be made about its use or non-use on future occasions. Some teachers might agree to have their efforts evaluated after they have implemented materials for the first time. Others might object to this on the grounds that they are still experimenting and becoming accustomed to the new materials, and therefore will want to delay an evaluation to perhaps the second year. When a teacher or group of teachers do decide to embark upon an evaluation they will need to consider ways of collecting data about:

- students' activities and achievements;
- teaching methods (intended and actually used) and interactions between the teacher and students;
- how the materials were actually used by the teacher and the students.

For a small group of teachers who have been closely involved in developing curriculum materials, it should be possible for them to share the evaluation task. Some of the techniques which could be used to collect data are listed in Figure 3. The amount of evaluative data collected depends upon the importance attached to the new curriculum materials. It would be invaluable for colleagues to be involved in *observing* and *rating* each other on their actual use of the new curriculum materials. It is assumed that colleague ratings would be accepted by all members of the development group but this might not always be the case. Not all colleagues might be willing to submit themselves to observations and ratings by their fellow teachers, and in such situations, more reliance would need to be placed on self-reports.

Self-reports can take various forms (see Figure 3). A teacher can collect his or her own observational data by the use of *audio-taping* and *video-taping* procedures. A teacher can keep a *diary* of major happenings which occurred in the implementation of particular lessons.

Data on student achievements and levels can be collected by each individual teacher or by colleagues. If the purpose of the evaluations is to gauge student interest in the use of new curriculum materials, then *checklists,* attitude scales and *questionnaires* might be used. Alternatively, if performance standards are required then it would be more appropriate to use *objective tests* and *essay tests*.

Figure 3. Techniques Available to Evaluate the Classroom Implementation of Curriculum Materials.

College involvement	Checklists
	Rating scales
	Anecdotal reports
	Observation category systems
	Interviews
	Questionnaires
Self evaluation	Checklists
	Diary entries
	Questionnaires
Student evaluation	Checklists
	Rating scales
	Interest inventories
	Attitude scales
	Questionnaires
	Objective tests
	Essay tests
	Standardised tests
	Interview
Materials evaluation	Observation checklists
	Informal analysis of materials
	OR
	Analysis using a published materials analysis scheme, for example Piper (1976), Eraut (1975), Gall (1981).

The actual use of curriculum materials can be undertaken by *observation checklists*, and by sampling *students' workbooks*. This might involve a simple tally of materials used or more detailed analyses of how students responded to specific materials. It would also be possible to combine data on *actual use* of materials with data obtained from a *content analysis* (such as a materials analysis scheme, for example, Piper 1976).

Implementation of Externally Developed Curriculum Materials

Teachers at a school may choose to adopt (or are required to adopt) curriculum materials which have been produced by external developers. These curriculum products tend to be quite substantial and might include elaborate teachers' handbooks, students' workbooks, audiovisual aids and related charts. There is a definite need for explanatory statements about how these materials might be used. External authorities producing these materials often have a daunting task in disseminating information about them to teachers. Explanatory notes can be insufficient to convey the necessary information. Workshops to familiarise teachers about a new set of materials are a more successful approach but they are clearly more expensive and time-consuming.

To a certain extent, the amount of detailed communication depends upon the intentions of the external developers. If the curriculum materials are an integral component of a syllabus or programme it is likely that the develpers have very definite purposes in mind and would want to establish specific levels of implementation. This is often referred to as a *fidelity of use* perspective on implementation. Curriculum materials which are tied to a syllabus and an external examination, for example, would contain details on specific objectives and content areas. An examination for students taking the course would reveal to a large extent whether the materials were being implemented effectively or not. In addition, teacher effectiveness with the materials might be surveyed by subject moderators and superintendents/inspectors visiting schools and observing lessons.

Recent research approaches have produced some promising ways of evaluating teachers' degree of implementation of externally produced packages, especially those which are highly structured and imply a high fidelity of use. Hall (1975) and researchers have developed an interview instrument, entitled Levels of Use (LoU) which enables an external interviewer to pinpoint the level at which a teacher is using a specific curriculum. It is hypothesised that all teachers improve their levels of use with practice over a period of time and that they will go through such levels as 'preparation' – 'mechanical use' – 'routine' – 'refinement' – 'integration' and 'renewal'. An associated instrument, called a Stages of Concern (SoC) questionnaire, enables the interviewer to collect information about a teacher's concerns in implementing a curriculum. As with the LoU, it is hypothesised that there is a developmental progression whereby teachers' concerns develop from 'personal' concerns to 'management' concerns to 'student' concerns. The information obtained from these instruments can be used for arranging personalised inservice activities for teachers at their schools so that they can achieve higher levels of implementation more rapidly.

The situation is more complicated for external developers who have produced curriculum materials which are relatively unstructured and non-prescriptive. Some curriculum packages contain very few instructions for use and in fact the developers have deliberately refrained from prescribing sequences or settings. Some writers, for example, Berman and McLaughlin (1977), would argue that this approach is more realistic as teachers will inevitably make modifications to a curriculum package to suit their classroom situation. *Mutual adaptation* is the term frequently used to describe curricula which are modified for use and where the classroom environment is also modified to enable them to be used. For example, some part-units in a package on 'Community Health' might be selected by a teacher and simplified for use in his/her class and the program for the year level is reduced and rearranged so that the units can be included in a particular term or semester.

Not unexpectedly, it is extremely difficult to evaluate curriculum materials which have the potential to be implemented in many different ways. No standard criteria can be used, because each teaching situation will be different. A teacher might use some of the self-evaluation techniques listed in Figure 3 as he/she would be aware of the specific orientation which was to be taken with the curriculum materials. He/she could also select specific techniques to ascertain the achievements and attitudes of his/her students, as indicated in Figure 3.

Concluding Comments

Materials production can provide an ideal vehicle for teachers to acquire and develop various professional skills associated with teaching. By being directly involved in producing specific kits or packages, individual teachers, or preferably small groups of teachers, can experience all the uncertainties of curriculum developers. They have to weigh up alternatives and come up with justifications for their final decisions. To produce actual curriculum materials requires creative efforts and organisational zeal.

The activities associated with implementation are also worthwhile experiences for teachers, especially if they are the outcome of materials they have produced themselves. The planning necessary to ensure successful implementation of curriculum materials requires sound public relations skills with other staff, scheduling skills and a willingness to carefully monitor and evaluate activities from inception to conclusion.

References

Berman, P. and McLaughlin, M.W. (1977) *Federal programs supporting educational change, Volume VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation.* Prepared for the US Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Rand Corporation, Santa Monica.

Cohen, D. and Harrison, M. (1982) *Curriculum action project: A Report of curriculum decision-making in secondary schools.* Macquarie University, Sydney.

Eraut, M., Goad, L. and Smith, G. (1975) *The Analysis of Curriculum Materials.* University of Sussex, Brighton.

Gall, M.D. (1981) *Handbook for Evaluating and Selecting Curriculum Materials.* Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Gough, N. (1983) Curriculum development and teacher development in a materials evaluation project. *Curriculum Perspectives,* 3 (1), 37-42.

Hall, G.E., Loucks, S.F., Rutherford, W.L. and Newlove, B.W. (1975) Levels of Use of the Innovation: A framework for analyzing information adoption. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 26 (6), 52-6.

Harrison, M. (1981) School-based curriculum decision-making: A personal viewpoint. *Curriculum Perspectives,* 2 (1), 47-52.

Hoyle, E. (1982) The Professionalization of Teachers: A Paradox. *British Journal of Educational Studies,* 30 (2), 161-71.

Huberman, M. and Marsh, C.J. (1982) Toward an ecology of knowledge use in the classroom. *Curriculum Perspectives.* 2 (2), 35-48.

Hyde, N. *The development of a conceptual framework for the analysis of participative non-programmed curriculum decision-making.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Murdoch University, Perth.

Marsh, C.J. (1984) Teachers' knowledge and use of Social Studies and curriculum materials in public elementary schools. *Journal of Educational Research,* 77 (4), 237-43.

Marsh, C.J. (1986) *Curriculum: An analytical introduction.* Ian Novak, Sydney.

Piper, K. (1976) *Evaluation in the social sciences.* AGPS, Canberra.

Sabar, M. and Shafriri, N. (1980) The teacher as curriculum developer: A model for in-service training of teachers in Israel. *Journal of Curriculum Studies,* 12 (3), 207-17.

Skilbeck, M. (1981) The role of evaluation in curriculum development at the school level. In Russell, N. *et al. Curriculum evaluation: selected readings.* CDC, Canberra, 13-22.

Stenhouse, L. (1975) *An introduction to curriculum research and development.* Heinemann, London.

Walker, D.F. (1971) A naturalistic model for curriculum development. *School Review,* 80 (1), 151-65.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH PARENT-TEACHER-COMMUNITY INTERACTION

David Pettit and Yve Willich

The basic rationale for parent participation in school – the improvement of learning outcomes for young people – frequently becomes frustrated by the prior concerns of principals and teachers about the effects of participation upon their power. Teachers acknowledge the need for greater skills in personal interaction but are not satisfied by many existing professional development programs.

This paper examines the efficacy of an inclusive approach to parents in a jointly planned professional development program, promoting shared ownership and equality of esteem. It describes the program and the extent to which an inclusive approach was realised.

Introduction

This paper will use a case-study approach to examine issues, principles and strategies for engaging teachers and administrators in professional development with parents and community members. A brief introduction is followed by a short review of what teachers' attitudes appear to be both to interaction with parents and to professional development programs generally. The case study follows.

For those parents whose own school experience was marred by trauma or failure – and for many others as well – there is little reason to feel confident about relating to their children's school. Yet in the last decade there have been many initiatives taken by parent and teacher organisations, individuals, state and federal governments and commissions that have espoused a much closer partnership between parents and teachers. The advantages of the partnership are conveniently summarised in the Beazley Report in Western Australia (1984). It sensibly acknowledges the present reality that schools are dominated by teachers and principals and calls for greater parent and community involvement and participation in order to:

- enhance the education of children
- enrich and broaden the school curriculum
- make schools more responsive to the interests and needs of people they serve
- make schools more accountable, and
- increase community political support for schools.

Similar views are expressed in recent Commonwealth, Victorian, NSW and ACT Reports (Schools Commission 1981; Ministerial Paper No. 1, 1983; Swan and McKinnon 1984; Steinle 1983). The Reports have highlighted the dilemmas of changing relationships – the need for enabling rather than limiting structures, the need to debate 'who owns the curriculum' and attendant issues of power in and over schooling.

The Beazley Report's value is that it reflects the Australian middle ground in approaches to school-community interaction. Its starting point is that power at present resides in schools and with professionals. It reflects teachers' sensitivity to the potential impact on their role of formal shared decision-making bodies such as school councils. It debates the council issue at length but pays little attention to the value of direct informal involvement and participation in support of children's learning and to the general role of the school in community development.

It would be misleading to suggest that conviction about the need for greater interaction exists only in the conventional wisdom of formal Inquiries and Commonwealth Commissions. Parents and teachers singularly and jointly in many schools have increased and improved interaction or, in the last resort, have established their own small community schools to reflect this priority.

Greater interaction between schools and their community will require both formal and informal encouragement. The definite but careful Australia-wide move towards legally devolved local school responsibilities through school councils or boards can be matched by the removal of barriers to involvement and participation that exist in Education Acts and guidelines, see for example Beazley (*op. cit.*, 276-7). However for many teachers, long schooled in an exclusive view of their role, there is a pressing need to complement the national and international trend towards greater interaction – formal and informal – with appropriate professional development. The Beazley Committee acknowledged that a significant change is required in the present practice which will require 'substantial changes in the attitudes and skills of teachers'.

The Report recommended that teachers' preservice education should include methods for 'encouraging community participation in school-based decision-making which should be supplemented by suitable in-service during their teaching careers' (Beazley 1984, 275-6).

The nature of such in-service is problematic and is tied closely to the need for a reconceptualisation of the relationship between teachers on one hand and children and parents on the other. The rapidly changing context of schooling has highlighted the need for a fundamentally different relationship.

In the last century schools circumscribed their boundaries so that internal operations could be rationalised in much the same way that businesses were scientifically managed through systems approaches (Callahan 1962). In the process teachers became defined as workers and policies were designed to increase their efficiency in delivering services. But as David Seeley has pointed out, 'Teachers are not the prime workers in the educational process; students are and they produce learning by their own efforts and not by having it delivered to them' (Seeley 1981). If students are not part of the system, parents most certainly are not.

In these circumstances the nature of in-service for teachers begins to look very much like the creation of a learning system inclusive of both parents and teachers, centred less on the formal structures on which Beazley concentrated and more on the informal relationships that link teachers to parents because of their shared concern for children.

Starting Points for Professional Development Strategies

To say that power lies within the professional camp is not to say that all teachers are hostile to sharing that power. Some may be. Many others have an inclusive view of their role which acknowledges the significance of the context and the role of those outside the school. Some teachers' views are not yet developed. To be effective professional development programs need to take account of what influences teachers' attitudes.

During the mid-seventies the British Schools Council carried out research into the nature and strength of influences and constraints that teachers saw acting upon firstly their schools and secondly their classrooms (Taylor *et al.* 1974). The British research instrument, a questionnaire, was adapted by one of the authors in consultation with Victorian teachers. Those parts relating to professional development in the area of home-school interaction were extracted and are summarised below.

Teachers were asked to assess the degree of *influence* certain persons or organisations had upon what was taught in their schools and in their classrooms. A Likert scale was used to rate influence, as

1. no influence at all
2. only a little influence
3. a definite influence
4. a strong influence, and
5. a very strong influence.

Teachers were also asked about *contraints* on their teaching. This was a yes/no answer with no weighting and the number of those indicating constraints were expressed as a percentage of the school staff responding to the questionnaire. One hundred and ninety-four teachers from sixteen Victorian schools responded. Nine were state primary schools, three catholic primaries, an independent primary and an independent secondary. School sizes varied (from 8 to 45 teachers on staff) as did the percentage response rate. The best teacher response rate (100%) was in the smaller state and catholic schools and the worst in a large state primary (30%) and a secondary independent school (45%). The schools that form the sample are those in which a group of teachers engaged in upgrading their teaching qualifications taught: as such they are a 'random' sample of upgrading teachers and their schools. A very brief description of the schools is given in Appendix B.

Responses are grouped to indicate the strength of influence from within and outside the school, the weighting of constraints from outside the school and teachers' attitude to the need for professional development in general, not specifically in regard to home-school interaction. Within school influences consist of students and teachers in both teaching and administrative roles. Outside school includes lay and educational influences experienced locally and the influence of national and state organisations.

Within school influences. Within school influences on what is taught are generally the strongest. In the classroom, teachers and students are, not surprisingly, definite to strong influences and are influenced by colleagues. In the school in general decisions are more broadly influenced by principals, deputy principals and peers both formally and informally. Within school influences are, with very few exceptions the strongest felt on the classroom and, to a slightly lesser extent, on the school.

The research invited teachers to state whether they felt capable of reciprocating influences in the school, that is responding to colleagues and others and having their concerns responded to even if the eventual outcome might not exactly meet their wishes.

Using two-thirds or more of staff feeling able to reciprocate influence as a cut-off point, 100% of schools indicated an ability to influence their colleagues, in 94% of schools teachers could reciprocate with informal teacher groups, in three-quarters of the schools teachers could reciprocate the influence of students and staff meetings, in 69% of schools the principal's influence could be reciprocated and in 56% the deputy principal (see Table 1 Appendix A).

Local influences and constraints: lay. Parents are generally seen as an influence on what is taught but in most schools the influence of the School Council is greater (see Table 2 Appendix A). In many schools, the home environment is seen as a constraint on teachers achieving their aims as are the attitudes and abilities of children which are, in many teachers' eyes, the result of communal and family attitudes and backgrounds (Table 2).

There is a strong correlation between the data for the three disadvantaged schools (A, E, N) where parent influence generally is low and the home background and children's attitudes and abilities constitutes a constraint to a majority of teachers.

The influence of councils in state schools (on which teachers sit) is an interesting phenomenon that indicates that the Beazley Report's preoccupation with this issue was not misplaced.

Local influences and constraints: education. In no school was there any 'definite' local educational influences at work. The findings are interesting for professional development. They indicate that local CAEs, universities, teachers' centres, regional consultants and senior education officers have little perceived influence on what happens in schools or classrooms.

The influence of national and state organisations. The further from the school, the more limited outside influences are perceived as being. Only the State Minister of Education (largely through Ministerial Papers and Reports) and the Schools Commission (through Reports and funding) had more than a 'little' influence.

In summary, ability to influence lies close to the school, either directly within it and with councils (in state schools) and/or parents.

Do teachers feel the need for professional development? Only a minority of teachers consider their level of competence and their professional training as constraints upon achieving their teaching aims: the constraints originate primarily outside schools (see above). The availability of in-service courses is not a major constraint for a majority nor is getting time of except in the dependent schools where concern about teachers' workload was commonplace (Table 3 Appendix A).

The teachers' attitudes to teacher development programs recorded above are supported by other Victorian research.

As part of an extensive series of survey of the in-service requirements of Victorian primary and post primary schools, Moore (1983) surveyed schools in the Tullamarine (metropolitan, northern) region. These results highlight two aspects of teachers' attitudes to professional development which are particularly pertinent to the present discussion. They are:

1. Teachers are becoming increasingly concerned with the human interaction and the social facets of their position as teachers. Although the basic curriculum areas were still well represented in the priorities for in-service provided by these teachers post primary teachers listed 'Relations with Parents and Community', as their seventh priority from a group of over 100 topics. In addition, both primary and post primary teachers listed 'Human Relations and Communication' as their 13th priority.
2. There is a relatively low impact attributed to professional development programs. Teachers felt that they were not consulted on the provision of professional development courses. The lack of opportunity to contribute resulted in a view that those responsible for this area were not responsive to the group that they served.

The first point can be seen to reflect teachers' response to the many changes which are currently taking place in the education system. In many areas, the role of the school is being re-examined and re-defined.

The guidelines for education are being changed both formally, as in the case of the Victorian ministerial papers, and informally as a response to social changes and community perceptions of the function of schools. Such changes are particularly obvious in the area of parent-teacher-student interaction and the involvement of parents and students in the decision-making process in schools.

Essential Principles for Professional Development Programs

Beazley acknowledged the Australian reality that in most cases power lies in the professional camp, be it that of the bureaucracy, the principal or the teachers. In their interactions with schools, parents and the community generally perceive themselves as having little power. To clarify the power debate it is probably more helpful to talk not of interaction but of involvement and participation, reserving interaction to describe the totality of relationships between schools and the community. In involvement one group acknowledges the right of another group to a role in a process but reserves to itself the definition of the nature and extent of the role. In participation all those with a vested interest are considered to have the right to an action role in decision-making over a range of issues.

Professional development should address strategies for achieving participation for reasons that are developed later.

This paper argues that certain principles should direct the nature of day-to-day interaction between the school and the community and that those principles should also direct professional development.

In schools it is not rare to hear the phrase 'let's get our act together before we discuss it with group x'. In effect this means 'let us use our knowledge to define the issues, the terms of the debate and develop a strong position. In these circumstances group x is at best to be involved or consulted in a process. Its reaction may be pleasure, 'we've never been consulted before', puzzlement, 'why would they want us to give an opinion', irrelevance, 'it's got nothing to do with us', or 'I've got no opinion on that', or anger 'it's a setup; we're being conned to agree to what they want'.

For these reasons the principles guiding interaction should be participative. The first principle is one of *joint development* of school-community agendas so that issues are not seen to serve the interests of a particular group. The second principle that follows from this is *ownership* – that the plans and actions belong to all the groups with a vested interest who are accountable for them. The third principle is of *equality*, that people coming to decision-making are considered equal in their ability to contribute to the debate. In many ways the third principle is the most difficult to substantiate in practice for reasons developed below.

There are three factors which largely decide whether the principles can be achieved. Firstly whether those in the interaction are equally well informed on the issues, secondly whether they have equal access to agenda creation and third their feelings of personal effectiveness as they approach and are engaged in the debate.

Case Study of Professional Development Through Parent-Teacher Interaction

A professional development course conducted by one author in Victoria will be used to illustrate the practical implementation of the principles outlined above. The course was titled 'The Development of Parent-Teacher Interaction in Schools' and was organised as part of the state-wide provision of professional development to all government and registered schools funded by the Victorian In-service Education Committee (VISEC). The findings, like the principles outlined above, are applicable not simply to a course organised on this basis but to almost all other formats. Fifteen schools participated in this course which was held in two phases. The first phase consisted of eight consecutive Wednesdays and was followed by a break of one month to allow the participant schools to implement the action plans developed during this phase. The second phase consisted of two further Wednesdays and was provided to allow for follow-up input based on the experiences encountered by the participants in their implementation of school programs.

This course has been chosen as an example for two reasons. Firstly as it was designed to directly examine and improve parent-teacher interaction in schools, and secondly, as the major objective of the course was to assist schools in planning and implementing school based programs, it also provides examples of how the principles cited above were used by the participants at a school level.

The initial concern in planning this course was that both parents and teachers from participant schools would be present so that together they could be directly involved in the learning and the discussion.

Consequently participants for the course were selected on the basis of at least one teacher/principal and one parent member being included in each school team. This also ensured that parents and teachers were involved jointly in the planning of school based programs at each of the schools.

Having established that both parents and teachers would participate in the interaction, it was then necessary to develop a structure which would promote a climate of equality among all people involved in this interaction. To illustrate this structure details are provided of the four sessions which comprised the first day of this course. The first step towards achieving equality was to ensure that all the participants had access to the knowledge which was relevant to shared learning and understanding. Consequently the first session was devoted to an outline of current government policy on parent-teacher interaction. This session also included a discussion of the terminology which is currently used in this area. This latter point is particularly important as educators often use professional jargon and abbreviations with which parents are unfamiliar. As a result parents can feel confused, inadequate and generally alienated from the proceedings.

The second session of the inservice also addressed the issue of knowledge. However, this time the focus was on the school. A 'school analysis' was undertaken in which all participants completed checklists designed to ascertain what was known about the decision making process and policies of their school. The participants also completed questions directed at their general perceptions and feelings about their school.

These activities were followed by the school team sharing any information which had not been available to one another previously. Following this, groups consisting of two schools compared their results and discussed the outcomes of their questionnaires. Two schools were included in each group so that both the parent and the teacher from each school would have a person in a similar position to compare their experiences with. The results of this session also provided the basis for the first task for each school. This task was to obtain any information about the school which the team had been unable to provide. In addition it was suggested that the teams could extend this exercise with the rest of the staff-school community in their schools.

The next session in the in-service was devoted to the participants' perceptions of their role in the course and to their expectations and criteria for success. The participants discussed and recorded their expectations, their purpose in attending, what they hoped to achieve, how they would judge whether they had achieved their goal, and what they felt that they had to contribute to make the interaction successful. This activity emphasised the role of the people in the group in determining the outcome of the in-service. It also provided information on personal and school goals which were used later in evaluating the course and in looking at changes in attitude or expectations which had occurred during the course.

Providing these records of initial expectations is a valuable tool for evaluation. It often raises issues which may be missed if evaluation is not considered until after the conclusion of the interaction using criteria which is either arbitrarily chosen, or useful only to the organiser. This is perhaps best illustrated with reference to the current example. The criteria for success which were given by the participants in this initial session were very similar throughout the group. The major focus was on achieving practical change in schools.

However at the conclusion of the course the reasons given by participants as to why they felt that the course was successful had a different emphasis, *i.e.* that they had developed *personally*. Although most participants also mentioned the practical developments in their schools, the overriding criteria in the final evaluation was personal development.

The comparison and discussion of these goals led to a parallel expansion of the participants' guidelines for the in-services being planned for other staff or parents in their schools.

In the fourth session an outline of the proposed format of the course was presented with an opportunity for participants to indicate additional areas they would like to see included and any changes in sequence which may have made the format more useful to them. This session further highlighted the participants' 'ownership' of the course by enabling them to contribute to the program on the basis of their own needs for assistance in particular areas.

The second section of the course was devoted to setting goals and developing action plans for each participating school. Consensus and priority setting activities were used to ensure that all members of the team participated in the planning. In addition, the provision of structured formats for reaching team decisions gave the participants practical experience of decision-making models to use in their schools. This provided a valuable experience.

In the third section of the course people from several schools which had already implemented innovative programs in this area were invited to come to the course and share their experiences. Prior to this session each of the visiting schools was asked to provide some written information on their programs. This was given to the participants before the session to familiarise them with all the programs and allow each participant school to choose from among the visiting schools those which would be most relevant to their own school experience.

The next five sessions of the in-service were concentrated on two major areas. The first was the on-going feedback and discussion of the programs which each school developed. Throughout these five weeks sessions were included which allowed each school to discuss its planning and to draw on the whole group for support, and practical assistance. The second area was the provision of sessions on several of the personal and practical skills associated with parent-teacher interaction, parent participation in decision making and school change. Topics for these sessions included: effective communication, conflict resolution, assertiveness, running meetings, information transfer, time management, involving the uninvolved, empowering people to act in schools, change strategies and moving from individual to joint concerns. In addition, the formal avenues for parent-teacher interaction in school (such as parent-teacher interviews, information nights, school council meetings) were examined in turn, and guidelines for evaluating their present effectiveness in schools and for parents and teachers to gain maximum benefit from these avenues were developed.

The format for each of these sessions was varied to prevent monotony in the process, and to expose the participants to a range of models for working in groups which they could then apply to situations within their own schools. However, there were several common features in these sessions which reflected the principles for effective group interaction and adult learning. For example, most sessions included practical small group or individual activities, larger group feedback and some input from the people running the activity who had expertise in the area. This general structure was a product of the organiser's view that for participants to receive maximum gain from a session there should be a combination of external input and guidance plus utilisation of the knowledge and skills within the group. It is not sufficient to present participants with a series of tasks and to organise groups and information sharing activities where the outcome is the sole result of the knowledge which is already possessed by the group. It is equally unsatisfactory for the 'expert' to provide the only input in the form of 'telling' people what to do.

The interaction of external and group input can occur in several different forms. The group facilitator can draw on knowledge of the area to provide a framework for discussion and activities which illustrates a new perspective on the problem. An example of this format in the in-service was the session on conflict resolution. The facilitator who conducted this activity outlined the range of different styles of dealing with conflict. Following this participants used questionnaires and discussion to determine their own manner of dealing with conflict. The session concluded with discussion on the suitability of these styles in different situations and the practical strategies involved in adopting alternate personal approaches to conflict.

A second approach is for the facilitator to begin the session with an activity in which participants examine the extent to which they can provide the solution themselves and devise the areas where they require the facilitator's assistance. In this latter instance the participants determine the major areas for input by the facilitator. An example of this approach was the parent-teacher interview session. In this activity participants were initially provided with anonymous copies of school reports. Parents and teachers exchanged roles for this activity. Each report was accompanied by a short description of the child according to the parent or teachers' perception. The group then engaged in a 15 minute parent-teacher interview (or a similar format to that used in many schools). After this activity the participants discussed their reaction to this activity, listing both positive and negative points. They then developed strategies for changing the interview situation which counteracted the negative aspects of this traditional format. In addition they listed areas where they required assistance from the facilitator to develop solutions.

Some Learnings from the Course

The professional development course demonstrated that it is most important to consider carefully the *structures* which are used to encourage equality of opportunity for group members to contribute to discussion and group tasks. In new situations people frequently rely on the perceived status of group members to govern their group interaction – regardless of whether these 'status' characteristics have any relevance to ability to perform the task. In school groups there is normally a clear perception of a status hierarchy, with principals enjoying the highest position, followed by teachers then lastly parents (and children). Unless some framework is used to govern the initial group reaction, these perceptions govern the opportunities for individuals to contribute. Frameworks can be as simple as asking all group members to provide one comment they have to offer to a discussion on a topic and one thing that they would like to learn more about. The discussion can then address these requirements and allow for all people to contribute their information. There are many variations on this simple framework, each giving some order to a discussion to prevent some members who are used to group deference dominating and others being unable to contribute. Such structures are usually only necessary for the initial sessions to break established patterns or prevent people adopting overly dominant or non-involved positions which once established can remain throughout the interaction.

When a *broad ownership* of a project is established from the beginning, it is unlikely that the project will fade out. If the problem or task is planned directly in response to participants' needs, criteria for ongoing evaluation are built into the program from the beginning. Maintenance and evaluation of the interaction can be seen as products of the planning and initiation rather than separate issues. Accordingly, in planning the in-service, the essential principles for equality in parent-teacher interaction and for group ownership of the project were incorporated into the program from the planning stage onward. Equality and ownership were addressed on the first day of the course. It is far easier to continue in a direction which has been clarified from the onset of an interaction than it is to introduce additional structures and changes to an established interaction. This is one reason why many schools find it very difficult to develop the area of parent-teacher interaction: structures and processes are already in existence which govern the roles which are adopted by parents and teachers respectively. Consequently, any presentation of alternative frameworks for interaction (as in the case of professional development), must clearly define the practical guidelines for this alternative from the onset. In the absence of this structure, people will draw on existing patterns of interaction.

The final issue concerns the instigation and involvement in teacher-parent development courses. In the group review of school implementation and future planning there were evident differences between schools in the levels of school involvement. In particular, there were differences between schools where teachers initiated this move. All teams felt that they had successfully involved school staff and parents in reviewing, evaluating and planning changes in the area for their schools. However, schools where *teachers* had perceived this need and sought the course as an additional avenue to work with parents in school, reported greater commitment from teachers and parents than schools where parents had initiated this. This difference was particularly evident where the initiative had come from many staff members. It would appear from the participants' evaluations that there is still a considerable amount of passive resistance to parent participation from groups of teachers. If this was evident in schools where the principal and at least one teacher had responded positively to participating in the in-service, it is probably far more pronounced in many other schools.

The strategy which was used by the course teams within these schools was to avoid antagonistic approaches by the agents of change. The teams were responsive at all times to the concerns of teachers. This made it difficult for hesitant staff groups to create defensive and non-productive communication. Consequently while change was considerably slower in these schools, the situation was continually progressing towards not only change, but also a more satisfactory method of communication for all school groups.

Summary

The desirability of closer school-community relationships promoted over the last decade for educational and political reasons had caused tensions in schools and between schools and their communities.

It has required change in teacher attitudes, often accompanied by stress and some role ambiguity. To become responsive to 'outside' expectations is seen as the politicisation of teachers' perceived, if unreal, neutrality: in-service

programs that promote ways of incorporating parent and community opinion are seen as another form of undermining their status. Fortunately this view is not, in its extreme form, widely held. But neither should the unease be underestimated.

For parents, the trumpeted values of closer relations is superficially comforting. In practice the gulf between the rhetoric and the reality is large particularly when the going gets rough and the desirability of particular aspects of the school curriculum is brought into question. The ranks of the teachers can close with militaristic impenetrability.

Yet the need for professional development – of teachers and parents together – is acknowledged. In some states it is supported by special joint in-service coordinators. Practices in many schools are encouraging and wise in-service programs draw upon successful practice, carefully analysed.

The case study sought to describe important elements in in-service programs. Those elements are set within certain principles which recognise the personal and social, as well as the technical, factors of successful change processes.

The principles of *joint development*, of *ownership* and of *equality* are difficult to achieve in practice. It would not be an exaggeration to say they are never achieved. But for all those involved in schools as principals, teachers, support staff, parents and in some cases, students to be aware of their existence and to analyse present practice in their light is essential in moving towards the desired objective of more successful schooling.

References

Beazley, K.E. (1984) *Education in Western Australia.* Report of the Committee of Inquiry. Perth, 263-76.

Callahan, R. (1962) *Education and the Cult of Efficiency.* Chicago University Press, Chicago.

Ministerial Paper No. 1 (1983) *Decision Making in Victorian Education,* Melbourne.

Schools Commission (1981) *Report for the Triennium 1982-84,* Canberra, 110-31.

Seeley, D. (1981) *Education Through Partnership.* Ballinger, Boston.

Steinle, J. (1983) *The Challenge of Change.* ACT Schools Authority, Canberra.

Swan, D. and McKinnon, K. (1984) *Future Directions of Secondary Education: A Report.* Sydney, 44-5.

Taylor, P.H. *et al.* (1974) *Purpose, Power and Constraint in the Primary School Curricula.* MacMillan, London.

Appendix A

Table 1. Teachers' Perception of Where Power to Influence the School and Classroom Lies

(   ) Influence on classroom

School	Self	Pupils	Colleagues in school	Informal groups of staff	Formal staff meeting	Principal	Deputy Principal
A	3.2 (4.6)	3.7 (4.0)	4.2 (3.7)	4.0 (3.7)	3.3 (2.9)	3.7 (3.7)	4.2 (4.2)
B	2.5 (4.2)	3.4 (3.7)	3.7 (3.5)	3.7 (3.6)	3.6 (3.4)	4.4 (3.3)	2.0 (1.6)
C	3.2 (4.2)	3.6 (3.4)	3.6 (3.2)	3.0 (2.6)	3.0 (2.8)	4.2 (3.8)	3.1 (2.1)
D	2.6 (3.8)	2.3 (2.7)	2.6 (3.1)	2.1 (2.1)	2.9 (2.1)	3.7 (3.0)	3.3 (2.6)
E	3.8 (3.6)	3.6 (3.7)	3.4 (2.5)	2.8 (2.6)	3.4 (2.6)	3.4 (2.8)	2.8 (2.6)
F	2.6 (4.8)	3.1 (4.1)	4.0 (3.4)	2.7 (2.7)	3.5 (3.1)	3.9 (3.1)	3.1 (2.3)
G	2.6 (3.6)	3.1 (3.4)	3.2 (3.5)	2.3 (3.0)	2.7 (2.7)	3.2 (3.0)	2.8 (2.5)
H	3.1 (4.4)	3.7 (3.8)	4.0 (3.6)	2.8 (2.6)	4.0 (3.2)	4.2 (3.4)	2.8 (2.4)
I	3.0 (4.0)	3.4 (3.4)	4.3 (4.1)	3.3 (3.3)	3.7 (3.7)	4.6 (4.4)	3.0 (3.0)
J	2.5 (4.3)	2.9 (3.3)	3.8 (3.0)	2.8 (2.8)	3.5 (2.5)	3.6 (2.6)	2.6 (2.2)
K	3.0 (4.8)	3.2 (3.7)	4.2 (3.2)	2.7 (2.7)	4.1 (3.4)	3.8 (2.0)	3.8 (2.7)
L	2.8 (4.5)	3.4 (3.9)	3.6 (3.3)	3.1 (3.1)	3.5 (3.3)	3.9 (3.5)	3.1 (2.7)
M	3.0 (4.8)	3.5 (4.3)	4.0 (3.5)	3.3 (3.5)	3.0 (2.5)	3.0 (2.0)	3.6 (3.0)
N	2.8 (4.2)	3.1 (3.5)	4.0 (3.5)	2.6 (3.0)	3.1 (3.1)	2.8 (2.0)	3.4 (3.0)
O	3.0 (4.2)	3.2 (3.7)	4.3 (3.8)	2.7 (2.7)	3.4 (3.0)	4.5 (4.0)	2.1 (1.9)
P	3.0 (4.1)	3.0 (3.0)	4.1 (3.7)	3.3 (3.0)	3.4 (3.1)	2.4 (2.1)	2.0 (2.0)
Aver	2.9 (4.3)	3.3 (3.6)	3.8 (3.4)	3.0 (2.9)	3.4 (2.9)	3.6 (3.0)	3.0 (2.5)
Reciprocity		75%	100%	94%	75%	69%	56%
Schools		12/16	16/16	15/16	12/16	11/16	9/15

(*N.B.* Over 66% able to reciprocate)

Table 2.
Influence and Constraint of the Parents and Students

( ) Influence on classroom

School	Influence of		Constraint (% of teachers) of home environment and children		
	Parents	School council	Home environment	Child's attitudes	Child's abilities
A	1.9 (1.7)	3.2	100	94	81
B	3.0 (3.0)	3.1	25	16	33
C	3.3 (3.0)	-	35	14	28
D	2.8 (2.6)	3.6 (2.6)	9	36	27
E	1.8 (1.7)	2.8	89	50	50
F	2.5 (1.9)	2.9	47	40	20
G	3.7 (3.2)	2.6 (2.7)	-	44	-
H	3.3 (3.4)	-	75	50	58
I	3.8 (3.4)	3.4 (3.1)	14	14	14
J	3.0 (2.4)	3.1	60	33	33
K	3.5 (2.5)	3.7	30	30	20
L	2.5 (2.6)	2.9 (2.5)	69	50	63
M	2.5 (2.6)	2.9 (2.5)	40	80	50
N	3.1 (2.5)	3.1 (2.5)	87	62	25
O	2.6 (2.1)	2.8	60	30	20
P	2.1 (2.0)	3.0 (3.0)	30	20	30
Aver	2.8 (2.2)				
Reciprocity	75%	37%			

Table 3.
Teacher and Professional Development – Constraints (% of teachers)

School	Teacher level of competence	Level of professional training of teachers	Provision of in-service	Time off to attend courses
A	6	25	25	31
B	8	–	16	16
C	7	–	29	14
D	18	–	27	36
E	17	6	22	22
F	13	7	40	13
G	22	11	11	44
H	25	–	8	8
I	–	–	–	14
J	25	–	–	14
K	10	10	40	40
L	50	13	38	31
M	10	20	50	60
N	12	25	50	50
O	20	10	30	60
P	10	10	20	30
Aver	16%	11%	26%	31%

Appendix B
Description of Schools in Sample

School A:	a small state primary school in northern Housing Commission suburb on Supplementary Grants (Disadvantaged School) Funding.
School B:	a medium size state primary school in lower middle class new outer suburban area developed in sixties and early seventies.
School C:	a medium size Catholic primary school in established suburb.
School D:	an independent secondary school in outer eastern metropolitan growth area: recently transferred from inner suburban location.
School E:	a larger state primary school in northern inner suburb with stable working class population in receipt of Supplementary Grants funding.
School F:	a larger primary state school in eastern metropolitan middle class suburb.
School G:	a medium size independent primary school in eastern metropolitan ara.
School H:	medium size Catholic primary school in newer south-eastern suburb.
School I:	small Catholic primary school on the south coast near Geelong.
School J:	medium size state primary in inner suburb.
School K:	medium size state primary school in established eastern suburb quite close to the city.
School L:	fairly large outer suburban state primary school.
School M:	medium size state primary in affluent eastern suburb.
School N:	small inner suburban state primary with Housing Commission population receiving Supplementary Grants funding.
School O:	medium size state primary school in outer eastern suburb.
School P:	medium size state primary school in well established eastern suburb.

ACTION RESEARCH AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

David H. Tripp

This paper begins with a brief explanation of the action research spiral in terms of its four moments (plan, act, data, analysis), and with theory and practice and the notion 'strategic action'. An example of a typical action research project and four kinds of action research (technical, practical, critical and emancipatory) are outlined in terms of five basic variables or characteristics (direction, participation, practices, consciousness and values, and constraints).

The second half of the paper explores three currently major issues in action research as teacher development, namely, different kinds of action research projects, facilitation and the role of journals in the development of critical consciousness and action research projects.

The paper concludes with some examples of the way in which action research can be initiated through the analysis of critical incidents recorded in teachers' professional journals.

Action Research: Basic Concepts

> Educational action research is a term used to describe a family of activities in curriculum development, professional development, school improvement programs, and systems planning and policy development. These activities have in common the identification of strategies of planned action which are implemented, and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection and change. Participants in the action being considered are intricately involved with all of these activities.

This was how the ERDC sponsored National Invitation Conference on Action Research, held at Deakin University in May 1981, communally defined action research. Although action research is generally seen to have originated with the work of Kurt Lewin (1946, 1947) Lewin was probably doing no more than applying and systematising a fairly widely applied and traditional form of human behaviour. In that sense, Lewin's contribution was not so much the outright 'invention' of action research, but developing it to a point where he could demonstrate that it could be employed in a way which would not have been possible were it not brought to the level of public consciousness and hence come to be seen as an important means of social and professional development.

Action research consists of a repeated or cycle or spiral of four basic phases: plan, act, fact-find, analyse. These phases are now generally called 'moments' because they are less like stages than they are turning points in a cycle. Because action research is an ongoing strategy, the cycle is repeated: reformulated plan, revised action, more fact-finding, re-analysis. Thus the sequence is better termed a spiral to suggest open-ended movement, rather than a cycle which suggests a closed system. The moments move between discourse about what happened or is about to happen, and action in and on the material world. The spiral generally begins with a reconnaissance (Lewin's 1946 term) in which a general view of the field and its characteristics is obtained prior to the planning moment. The planning moment is the *prospective* part of the cycle, which leads to the two *present* moments (action and fact-finding or monitoring of the action) which leads into the *retrospective* moment of analysis and evaluation of the action and data.

This temporal dimension is important, for a key characteristic of consciousness is that it both spans and utilises differences in time, and thus distinguishes the action research cycle from the casual plan, act, sense and re-plan by which we operate all our waking lives (Boomer 1981). The importance is that action research is conscious and deliberate, a characteristic which leads to 'strategic action'. As Grundy and Kemmis (1981a) put it: 'human action, as opposed to mere behaviour, is a "probe" into an unknown future. Strategic action is *constructed*'. Strategic action involves logical analysis in contrast to action which is a result of habit, intuition, or mere whim. It also involves a sense of understanding the circumstances in which the action is to occur, as well as what is to be acted upon and how, and the relationships that hold between circumstances, context, intent and action. Strategic action involves discourse not merely of principles, but about the practical judgement of practitioner which is bounded in terms of action by the particular instance. These, together with a critical self-awareness of the practitioner's values, give rise to deliberation, which produces 'a kind of personal knowledge which manifests itself in wise judgement' (Grundy and Kemmis 1981a).

Some Different Kinds of Action Research Project

Exactly what constitutes action research has become a prominent issue in the 1980s because so much has happened in the social sciences since Lewin originally began to develop the characteristics of action research immediately after the Second World War. Thus Lewin's original formulation has necessarily changed considerably and justifiably in the light of the contributions from sociology such as those of Berger and Luckman (1976), Habermas (1974), Bourdieu (1977), Giroux (1983) and Apple (1982). Not only was action research subverted into a poor form of positivistic research in the late 1950s, but quite distinct variations have emerged in the work of John Elliott and Clem Adleman at the universities of East Anglia and Reading; Stephen Kemmis and others at Deakin University; Garth Boomer and others in South Australia and at the Curriculum Development Centre in Canberra; Shirley Grundy at the University of New England and myself at Murdoch University.

It needs to be made clear, however, that although definitions of action research are necessary to maintain its integrity, all defining statements about action research are essentially stipulative. For instance, although statements such as 'action research is research into one's own practice' (Carr and Kemmis 1983, 173) are generally agreed upon, there is, unfortunately, nothing about the sequence of moments such as which necessarily means that it can only be used by practitioners about their own practice. As philosophers have often said, and botchers have more frequently demonstrated, there is nothing about a chisel which necessarily means that it cannot be used as a screwdriver. So one should neither pretend that because a chisel is being used, chiselling must therefore be occurring, nor that when the spiral is being used it is necessarily action research which is therefore taking place. The problem is that whereas it is very clear just how the chisel is being used, it is not always very clear how the action research spiral is being used, so that is a matter which needs further understanding in terms of just how much of what kind of involvement of the participants is necessary to make use of the spiral constitute action research.

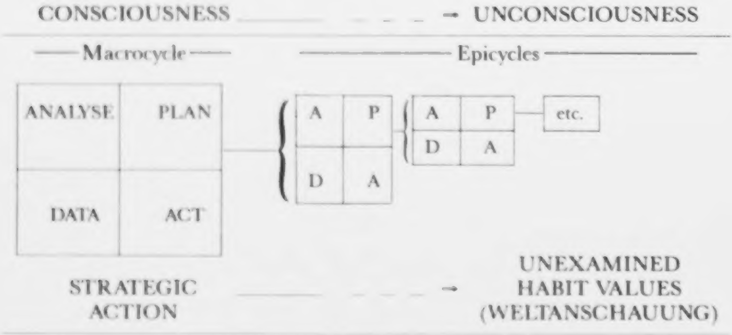
The very commensibility and naturalness of the spiral of moments leads some people to dismiss action research as a legitimate research strategy, seeing it merely as something done by any practitioner all the time, and totally lacking the necessarily artificial development that characterises scientific research. This common misconception about action research, however, ignores both the way in which traditional research strategies are located within the spiral in action research, and the notion of action research. First, strategic action involves a heightened form of the ubiquitous natural spiral: '. . . to do action research is to plan, act, observe, and reflect more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one does in everyday life . . .' (Kemmis and McTaggart 1982)

For example, whilst I am writing this sentence, I am engaging in *planning* a sequence of ideas and choosing which words I am going to use to express them. As I write them I am *acting* according to the plan, and *monitoring* them constantly by reading what I have just written in order to *analyse* and evaluate the writing. The changes I make to the first draft then constitute the next cycle of the spiral, *re-plan, act, monitor, analyse* . . . and so on. But though I am going through the moments of the action research spiral, and I am conscious of what I am doing, I am not actually doing action research. The action is not strategic in that I am not critically aware of either my purpose in writing or the context within which I am acting; neither am I consciously and deliberately employing the spiral; nor is the spiral heightened in any way by, for instance, the use of some recognisably scientific research strategies to monitor and analyse my action.

But whilst it is necessary to clarify the ways in which action research is different from natural practice, there is a danger that in so doing we overly dichotomise the two, thus ignoring the similarities of and connections between the unconscious and strategic uses of the spiral. Boomer (1981) for instance, convincingly puts a case for a more open definition with more in common between the way we habitually think, act and learn, and the strategic action research spiral.

Part of the problem is that the common representation of the action research spiral is theoretical, and hence general and idealised. It does not adequately allow for the inevitably more complex nature of the cycle as it actually proceeds in practice in a particular instance. One of the complications concealed by a simple account of the action research spiral is the fact that the different moments are not discreet: they not only overlap, but they also contain aspects of all the other moments within themselves. Consider the moment of 'action' for instance. As in the example of writing, how does one act without continually collecting data on one's performance ('monitoring'), reflecting upon the feedback one receives ('analysis') and thinking ahead about one's next action ('re-planning')? Clearly the same is true of the other phases: one cannot plan without referring to data, thinking about it and acting upon the plan, so the planning activity is itself a form of 'strategic action' fulfilling Grundy and Kemmis's (1981) criteria. One could term these spirals within the macrospiral 'epispirals'.

It is thus a more accurate rendering of the cycle to portray it thus:



This makes obvious the combination of the different processes, and it shows how the moments are more emphases then phases or discreet categories, and are distinguished more by the nature of their outcomes than by the nature of their processes. What we have, therefore, is an action research spiral of moments for each moment of the action research spiral.

Whilst such micro-analysis may at first seem to be mere academic hair-splitting, it does help to clarify the important issues of theory and practice in action research. For if each of the moments of the action research spiral actually consist of another spiral of moments, then it would seem to follow that the nature of the spirals within each moment of the spiral is different from the spirals of the spirals of the spiral . . . and so on. One of the ways in which they differ is in terms of a move from the conscious toward the unconscious. This is important, because the further one moves from the conscious, the further one moves from strategic action. Although action research as such need not be limited to action upon the physical world in that one may also act upon ideas (as we do when we practice planning or theorising), yet that move is away from action of the mind on the material world towards action of the mind in the mental world, a kind of recursiveness of which we lose track and conscious control at perhaps the second or third remove, thus ceasing to act strategically.

With regard to the macrospiral, it is apparent that even as it is represented in the simple account, there is a movement between action in the realm of practice and action in the realm of theory. Grundy and Kemmis (1981), Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) and others, show this as moves between discourse amongst participants and practice in the social context, but one can also characterise it as an oscillation between two realms of action, theory and practice. The way in which theory and practice relate to each other in that oscillation is explicated by the epispirals.

If one continues with the simple account of the spiral and the idea of emphasis rather than category distinction with the moments, one can see that it is also an emphasis rather than a category distinction in the case of theory and practice. In the moments of reflection and planning theory is paramount, and in the moments of data creation and action, it is practice. Pursuing that difference, it is apparent that the moments of the moments of the spiral are more 'theoretical' than 'practical', and that the moments of the moments of the moments of the spiral are similarly more theoretical than the moments of the moments of the spiral. So these epispirals reveal a regression from practice to theory, and show that the reason for the close affinity of practice for theory in action research is not only because of the oscillation from one to the other, but is also, and perhaps more importantly, because of the demand of strategic action for a conscious control of practice which reaches right into a consciousness of consciousness.

That probe into consciousness brackets both the public traditional theories of education which have been learned in a professional education, and the Weltanschauung theories that account for the way we construct our teaching according to the way we are ourselves constructed. Thus the value of the idea of the macro- and epispirals of action research is that it enables us to account for the way action research combines theory and practice showing them to be degrees of action and understanding rather than dichotomised entities, whilst allowing theory to be both within and without the individual teacher.

The Action Research Project

So far as I know, there is nothing which cannot be action researched in teaching. But typically, projects are of a relatively short duration (4-20 weeks) and set out to deal with practical problems, such as discipline, enquiry learning, extension, spelling, teaching heterogeneous classes and so on (Grundy 1984). Although now nearly ten years old, the Ford-T project (Elliott, Adleman and others, reported Elliott 1976) is still an excellent example. The general aim was for teachers to explore and generate hypotheses about open teaching, in the course of which they addressed problems of both methodology (such as triangulation) and the substance of their lessons (such as how children understood the use of a timeline in social studies). A more accessible typical example is one such as Creek's (1981) in which she implemented a contract system.

In this research she began with a statement of the problem:

> I am dissatisfied with my school's timetable. How can I reorganise the timetable so that everyone's time is used more efficiently with due consideration being given to each child's individual requirements? . . .

She then considered the field of action: a rural one-teacher school, and her current experiences and observations of children's work in the different subjects. The next move was the first action stsep in which she produced a trial contract form on the basis of children's responses and suggestions. On implementation she found she needed longer than the one hour originally allowed, and she found she needed to extend the contract to include more tasks. This action was monitored by recording information in a diary, tape recording three students' responses daily and taping a group discussion at the end of the week. From this feedback emerged the fact that all children, and especially the younger, were having trouble seeing what they had done, so she produced an 'On Target' evaluation sheet for them to complete daily. This step was then monitored and evaluated and further planning and action taken, and so the spiral continued. We do not know where the project ended because the published report was an interim one, but it does give a very good idea of the way in which a typical action research project progresses.

Four Forms of Action Research

The term 'action research' has always been disvalued by being used as a catchall label for any kind of project where the emphasis upon an emerging plan of action formatively driven by situation monitoring. As suggested above, the notions of strategic action and proper use of formal research strategies within the action research project, would render the term action research inappropriate to many such projects. Yet boundaries are still difficult to establish when two legitimately termed action research projects often seem to have little in common. In an important paper, Grundy (1982) clarified much of the difficulty surrounding the definition of an action research project, by showing that a number of different forms can still exist within the kind of criteria laid down. She suggested that there are at least four different forms of action research, each informed by a different disposition and informing practice in quite different ways. As that paper deals very thoroughly with the disposition and kinds of judgements brought into play, I do not propose to summarise them here, but merely to outline what I see as four essentially different but closely related kinds of action research, with the proviso that any one particular project is likely to move between one or more of these forms during its life.

The different forms of action research appear to be generated by five basic bipolar variables:

project direction	self	other
project participation	individual	group
practices developed	new	existing
participants' consciousness and values	problematised	unproblematised
situational constraints	accepted	modified

Most of these are very straightforward. The action research may be directed by the participant(s) or by another, as occurs when for instance, a principal uses classroom teachers to action research new ways of teaching spelling, measuring, singing or whatever. Direction tends to change during the life of a project because although people may have begun by being fired by someone else's idea (which need not come as a personal communication but may be found in a book or at an in-service course) they will frequently develop the project for themselves. Similarly, when difficulties arise during a self-directed project, teachers will often turn to others (such as advisors or the books of others) for help. Because direction actually comes in many different guises, it is important for participants to be fully conscious of where it is coming from.

In contrast to direction, participation is more simple being clearly solo or group, and it also tends to remain static for the life of the project. Important differences occur, however, if a group is sufficiently large or powerful to determine other factors such as project direction or situational constraints. With regard to practice as a variable, it is often difficult to tell whether a change in practice is merely an improvement to an existing one, or an altogether new one. Take a new way of teaching spelling, for instance. If the old way was mainly through writing out corrections and learning class spelling lists, but the new way is through correcting the text and making personal spelling lists, is it an improved existing practice, or a new one? The answer is, of course, that it doesn't much matter as such: it matters only in as much as the participants need choose how to initiate action and how they may best present it to others. Some kinds of action research tend to be evolutionary, others revolutionary, but the difference between the two is often a matter of interest and viewpoint.

Consciousness and values are more revealing variables. By consciousness I mean our world view, or Weltanschauung as the German philosophers have it. In fact Weltanschauung is rather more than world view because it has within it the notion of a theoretical system of ideas from which practical consequences may be derived. It is usually applied to the way in which we generalise and apply how we see the world in one aspect of our existence to other parts, so a key but limited part of our system of ideas permeates the whole of our perception and thought. For instance, Newton and Darwin built up theoretical systems of a very specific nature for the limited areas of mechanics and evolution respectively, but the ramifications of their ideas transformed many other aspects of the way western humanity viewed itself and its place in the universe. Whilst not inventing or articulating whole new systems such as Newton or Darwin, we all have such a Weltanschauung which may be said to constitute the assumptions and sets of rules upon and by which we think and act. Our Weltanschauung is the theoretical structure of the way we, as thinking social beings, are constructed, of the way in which our dispositions are actually composed, and hence, of the way in which we compose our teaching.

Values are a key factor in Weltanschauung in that the stance we adopt towards the world reflects them. If we like to see the world as being intelligibly organised, we are unlikely to see any forms of chaos, confusion or contradiction as profitable states to exist in. Often values clash, and such clashes are revealed in our language: 'They explored the topic with lively engagement' to one teacher means 'They shouted at one another and learning nothing' to another. Because all action involves choice, and choices stem from values (articulated or not), it is a crucial difference if an action research project is seen to (a) work within an existing and unproblematised value system, or (b) work within an existing but problematised value system, or (c) work on the values themselves. How a teacher is working is clearly revealed by the way they write about their action. For instance, one teacher wrote the following:

> *Waste.* Whilst on duty I have noticed fairly frequently one girl continually putting her food into the bin. The child looks around to see if anyone is watching and if not, quickly pops the lunch into the bin. The first few times the incident was overlooked or ignored but it being constantly repeated is causing me concern. The child is clearly being 'sneaky', so the problem is how to correct the whole situation rather than just make her devise more sneaky methods of lunch disposal.
>
> *Action.* A lesson on the importance and care of food was given in today's social studies lesson. Groups were set up to discuss amongst other things, wastage of food. The child in question was made a group leader to report group's findings. Her group's findings sounded very convincing but must wait now for practical outcome.

In sharp contrast, another wrote this:

> *My influence on reaction*
>
> I have noticed that fairly frequently during TV and radio broadcasts if something out of the ordinary or 'funny' or 'rude' comes up the kids will turn around *and look for my reaction before they continue with their own.* For example – recently there was a program on 'Movement' which showed children doing rhythmic exercises wearing fairly revealing body-stockings. The children kind of gasped and then I saw all the heads turn round in the dark to look at me to see whether I laughed or was shocked or reacted in some other way. *The first time* it came on I made a comment about how beautifully one could move in a suit like that and 'I wonder how they would put them on' . . . The children watched silently and with interest – giving suggestions about how they could put them on and saying how good all the muscles looked through the costumes. The second time it came on (a week later) the kids looked at me again and this time I looked shocked and commented on how I didn't think this was very suitable for a children's program. The whole of that particular session was greeted with giggles and 'rude' comments.
>
> So how much *do I influence* their reactions and values? To what extent would these hold in different situations with different teachers? How important is it that I keep my values the same from day to day – or would it be 'happier' for the kids if I didn't force the same things on them from day to day as far as reactions and values are concerned? How different is what they get in school from what they are exposed to at home? Is this difference (if there is one) confusing to them?
>
> But I will also carry this a bit further by telling them what I think they're doing. On a future occasion after the session I will ask the kids questions to find out whether their overt physical reactions actually match their mental reactions, or perhaps whether they thought my judgements were fair.

For the first teacher only practice was problematised, not the values, so the problem was merely how to act in terms of what would be the most efficient way of achieving an outcome the value of which was never questioned. She was working within her existing values. For the second teacher, her action was seen to result from her values, and her values to influence her pupils' values, so the problem was first a matter of the values, second of action. The first teacher's conscious question was: 'How will I achieve that?', the second teacher's: 'What should I try to achieve?' This concentration upon how to get something done, has been termed the 'practical problematic' (Tripp 1984).

Few teachers setting out in action research begin with the idea that they will work on their values. But one characteristic of action research important for teacher development is that most people find they problematise their values as they consciously monitor and analyse their action, because they begin to ask why they think or do what they are thinking or doing. Very few, however, actually work on their values as such. It is more common to recognise the values implicit in a particular practice, and change them from expediency. Thus the teacher who wrote 'wastage' needed to change the way she thought about waste of school lunch only in as far as the change was implicit in and necessary for her different action. It did not lead her to decide to work systematically on the personal values she brought to her teaching as such, merely upon the situation, when she could examine her values only in that regard.

Constraints are the last and in some ways the most important variable, if only because they are so often cited as the reason for not attempting certain practices. Clearly constraints such as the views and habits of those in authority over classroom teachers, class size, age of pupils, resources, parental and community expectations, teacher experience and collegial attitudes are all very real and are often taken to be utterly determining. The point is not, however, that the action research will vary according to the nature, number and severity of the constraints, but that it will vary according to how the participants regard them, *i.e.* as givens to be worked within, as givens to be worked around, or as human constructs that may be changed. In any one project different constraints will be treated differently, but the action research becomes radical when change of a (or some) constraint(s) become(s) incorporated as a part or the whole of the action research.

Given these five variables it is possible to distinguish at least four forms of action research. First is 'Technical' which is characterised by 'workmanship'. Participants do what they are expected to do efficiently and well. They are highly skilled professionals but they are essentially other-directed, and theirs is to do, rather than to reason why. In contrast, 'Practical' action research is self-directed, having more in common with craft or making than merely doing. Craft involves as a prerequisite workmanship, but it also requires an ability to be a self-starter, to design and improve, and perhaps to invent. Essential to design, especially in a field of social action, is the idea of the designer having a sense of what is right, both in principle and practice. Because practical action research is self-directed that sense of 'the good' must come from the action researchers themselves; it cannot be absent, and if it comes from outside it means that the action research is technical in that respect or at that point.

Grundy (1983) does not distinguish 'critical' from 'emancipatory' action research, but I think the distinction useful in an introductory paper of this kind because it differentiates the form of consciousness from the manner of action. 'Critical' I use in the sense of a social critique leading to radical change. It is a view of society as being essentially unjust, and capable, through purposeful human action, of becoming less unjust if not actually just. In this view the need for action research is seen to be the result of existing practices which have been generated by a particular world view, sets of values within constraints which have been constructed by certain interest groups principally for the benefit of those groups. The difference between critical and emancipatory action research in that scheme, is that whilst any and everyone personally and individually can develop a critical consciousness and work on the constraints of their condition, such action merely changes that individual and their own circumstances. To be emancipatory, action research has to work towards changing the consciousness of and constraints for those other than the immediate participants in the action research, to do which is an essentially political act. That kind of action research can only be a group project. So, just as skilful workmanship is a prerequisite of craft, so a critical consciousness is the prerequisite of emancipatory action research. Similarly, as one can be directed by others in skilled workmanship, so one can be directed by others in critical action research in that a socially critical consciousness and radical action as such can be taught, and is in fact more often taught than discovered for oneself. So rare, in fact, that Grundy (1984), in a review of recent Australian action research projects, found only two she unequivocally characterised as emancipatory. Furthermore, it seems to me that whilst critical action research is an ongoing state of being, emancipatory occurs only in particular and unusual circumstances when a critical mass of participants are able to work together. Such groups tend to disperse as teachers move and are promoted.

It is not the purpose of this paper to attempt to establish whether any one kind of action research is best or even most useful to teachers in terms of their professional development. That argument has been very successfully addressed elsewhere by Grundy (1984), and the conclusion she comes to is that it is the professional teacher who is critical of his/her own professionalism who has developed furthest in terms of their professional development. For that kind of action research state Grundy appropriately coined the term 'practique'.

The following summary table outlines the distinguishing characteristics of the four forms of action research discussed.

Four Kinds of Action Research

Technical: (Workmanship)	Other-directed, individual or group, generally aimed at improving existing practices, but occasionally at developing new ones, within existing consciousness and values with an unproblematised view of constraints.
Practical: (Craft)	Self-directed, individual or group, aimed as much at developing new practices as at improving existing ones, within existing consciousness and values from which a sense of what is 'right' is utilised to guide action, with an unproblematised view of the constraints.
Critical: (Radical)	Self- or other- led, individual or group, aimed at developing new practices, with a radical consciousness and problematised values, towards changing the constraints.
Emancipatory: (Political)	Self-leading group, aimed at developing new practices and/ or changing the constraints, with a shared radical consciousness and problematised values.

Returning from the characteristics of action research to the characteristics of the action research project, unsurprisingly, we find some subtle complementary differences occur between the work of, for instance, Tripp and Carr and Kemmis. At the risk of over-simplification and exaggeration, it could be said that their major emphasis is on the political nature of the enterprise, as may be seen from the following definition:

> Action research is a form of self-reflective inquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices, (b) their understanding of these practices, and (c) the situations in which the practices are carried out. (Carr and Kemmis 1983, 152)

Such a definition is somewhat different from that of Lewin (1952) who, for instance, had as a key component that action researchers should make a contribution to social science at the same time as they made a contribution to social change. In other words, there should be public learning from private action and that is the emphasis of my approach. Some of the action research I and my colleagues have done (*cf.* Tripp 1980; Walker 1983) has been as much directed at outsiders learning things from teachers, as about teachers doing things for themselves.

For instance, in one project we presented teachers with a problem I was interested in, namely that in general children's out of school experience of television was excluded from the formal school curriculum. After discussion of the matter with the whole school staff, four teachers decided they would like to work on the problem. The way we then went about it was to help them to examine their own practice, to decide how they would change it, and how they would evaluate the changes. Once the project was underway, the role of the outsider was to make a case study of each teacher and the whole project, learning from the teachers how they construed the problem, why they wished to make the changes that they did, and what the effects of those changes were. In other words, whilst an outsider initiated the project by creating a problem for practitioners, as the project developed the practitioners gained an understanding of their practice which fed back into their teaching, and the outsider gained an understanding of the teachers' practice, which was fed back to the research and teaching communities outside the field of the research through publication (Hodge and Tripp 1986).

The original account of that project (Walker 1983) shows that the project tended to move from technical to practical action research, and for one teacher at least, it had many of the characteristics of a critical action research project. The question is whether to regard the project as essentially a research project, a component of which involved action research, or as an action research project as such. Grundy (1984) opts for the former, I for the latter, what is at issue again being what constitutes action research.

Such differences, however, need not be in opposition if they are seen to be different emphases which lead via different routes to similar outcomes. We would agree that the 'two essential aims of all action research activity: to improve and involve' are the most fundamental, but we would perhaps look for different developments of these processes. If improvement and involvement lead to critical professional practice rather than mere single shot problem solving, then the two different but complimentary sequels will tend to emphasise either political action or public knowledge. Although these sometimes appear to be either/or options, they can never be separated, though their potential conflict is that in our present society they are impracticable simultaneously as they demand different directions of effort. On the one hand, the kind of emancipatory action research outlined by Carr and Kemmis leads to an essentially private transformation of consciousness, the public outcome of which is political action in the system in which the action research occurs, and thence to the wider social world. On the other hand that same private transformation of consciousness can initially through the academic world, lead to the public outcome of published contributions to an understanding of that system and then to society as a whole.

For instance, suppose a teacher becomes aware that through critical action research the asymmetrical power relationships inscribed in their assessment procedures is hindering the development of their pupils' writing abilities, they will tend either to politicise their colleagues into taking collaborative action on changing the assessment procedures in the school and system. That action will be largely assertive discourse aimed very directly at interpreting information to people in certain roles and positions of power in their school and system. Or they can set about documenting the nature of the issue and the effect of changed action with regard to assessment, producing a contribution to public understanding through contributions to the research literature.

The distinction between the two kinds of action, however, is never a dichotomised one, for as political action and argument requires an adequate knowledge base, there will be further research on the nature and effects of the assessment practices; and published research will inevitably come to the attention of those in power who will eventually have to incorporate it in some way into their policies and procedures.

The distinction is, therefore, a matter of who is being aimed at in what ways and when. On the one hand the action research initiates action on the public understanding of the practice which leads in time to political change. It is primarily a matter of dominant constitutive knowledge interest. Whilst there is no necessary methodological reason preventing both occurring simultaneously, there is a strong cultural one. The myth of objective research means that involvement in direct political action on the part of a researcher renders their research suspect to the eyes of the academic community thus neutralising the power of the research to effect public knowledge and political action via that route. The problem for action researchers is, therefore, not which kind of action research is the more 'pure' or 'better', but how each and perhaps other kinds of action research may continue to be appropriately developed and facilitated.

Action Research: The Issues of Facilitation

Using action research as professional in-service education raises the problem of the relationship between the teacher-educator and the teachers concerned. As suggested in the section on different forms of action research, the way in which the action research is directed, led, or facilitated, to a large extent determines the nature of the action research. Generally the role of facilitator is construed as someone who can make available resources such as time and secretarial help, who can answer the action researcher's questions (or at least offer them a range of possible answers) who will raise problems they have not themselves perceived, act as a 'sounding board' for their ideas and problems, and also act as an intermediary with those above them in the system.

There has, however, been some heated discussion amongst Australian action researchers about the kind of balance which it is appropriate to achieve between helping action researchers (and so perhaps lessening their autonomy and independence) and withholding assistance (and so perhaps allowing them to make known mistakes or re-invent the wheel). Clearly help can very easily turn into direction, and allowing people to direct themselves not only means allowing them to make what may be sufficiently serious errors that they cease the action research, it also means making them responsible for it. On the other hand, it is possible for an outsider such as a teacher-educator to require teachers to action research given problems that have nothing to do with the concerns or interests of the teachers doing the work. That produces an extreme form of technical action research, in which the outsider could hardly be called a facilitator but rather the director.

The issue of facilitation can be regarded as an issue about the kind of relationship in terms of power and autonomy which exists between the practitioner and the facilitator. That relationship manifests itself in the working of a project as a matter of the way in which practitioners access the facilitator and the facilitator's knowledge and experience. Does the facilitator, for instance, visit the site only when invited to by the practitioners, or does the facilitator visit when she/he deems it necessary? Do the practitioners demand a single 'best' answer to their question, or do they expect a range of possible answers, or even just some prior questions the answers to which could inform their own 'best' answer?

Such protocols of the relationships in a project are based upon the expectations of the participants. An in-service educator introducing action research to a group of teachers can often determine from the outset, for instance, whether the practitioners see the project as being about implementing a preferred innovation, or about innovation as such; whether they see action research as more of a process of individual and group enlightenment and empowering than a process to achieve a successful problem solution – action research as process or product.

The third aspect of this issue is the role of facilitator as researcher, journalist, or ethnographer. It seems to me that if the knowledge and experience generated by an action research project is to be shared, then it has to be recorded for dissemination by network or publication. The facilitator, partly by being something of an outsider, partly by being more experienced, and partly by having the necessary skills and more time by virtue of their position as an in-service educator, should be responsible for writing up the project. This does not mean that they should control the writing process and own the product, for reports should also include the teachers' writing, such as their programs and journals, and use cann be made of co-authoring techniques (Tripp 1983) and power sharing (Lather 1984). As previously suggested this is an important aspect if action research is to contribute to "Big-R" research (Boomer 1981) and thus contribute to educational theory in general and curriculum theory in particular. The importance of such issues cannot be overstressed, because a facilitator, by the way they set up the expectations of the practitioners and protocols of the project, will largely determine the form of the action research, and hence determine the range of possible outcomes.

Critical Consciousness: The Role of the Journal

In action research the importance of development of a critical consciousness cannot be over-emphasised, because it is key to a desire to change, and hence to professional development. The major problem I encounter with in-service action research is developing the desire to change. The teachers see themselves, as indeed they are, as successful in their classrooms: how else could they teach, study and have family and other social commitments, if their teaching were not relatively straightforward? Successful teaching, however, carries problems by virtue of its success. One of the reasons that successful teachers are successful is because they have so routinised many aspects of their teaching there is very little conscious engagement: they are on 'autopilot' having established practices and routines which enable them to work unproblematically. The practical problematic means that their problems and frustrations, when they admit to them, are almost entirely a matter of the best way to get something done, which is not always a matter of the best thing to do.

Action research should, at least initially, make trouble, otherwise it is mere problem solving. Action research aims to bring teachers to consider their classroom practice at a theoretical level and, where they decide it is necessary, to help them augment or change teaching strategies. The theories that action research relies upon are principally those teachers develop about their own teaching for themselves. But there is also a body of theory which is most appropriate when examining teaching or more precisely, teacher theories, and that is theory about the hidden curriculum, or all the learning which takes place in school that is not intended or planned. The hidden curriculum is learning, for instance, that girls can't do mathematics, how to avoid work and punishment, how pupils make the teacher do what they want, and so on.

So in my experience, the two key requirements for an in-service action research course are a developing critical consciousness, and an understanding of the hidden curriculum, and how values are always inscribed in teaching/learning practices. In the last section of this paper I briefly touch upon the use of teacher journals as one obvious means of both problematising practice through revealing implicit values, and tying together the moments of the action research.

First, the journal must be seen as a tool, the primary purpose of which is to provide a framework for thinking about thought, feeling and action. Journals work by extending the limit to the amount of analysis that can be done in the head, holding things still so they can be examined. The key to the definition of a journal, is system and focus. System and focus, however, have to be achieved, and most obviously this occurs because teachers can return to re-read a record and that the reading will produce new entries. This reflection over time narrows the content as later topics are selected for further development, making the entries cohere and generating a pattern around them. It is these aspects of thinking and writing in depth which constitute the development of a systematic understanding of practice which forms the knowledge base for strategic action.

These notions of extension of the writer's ideas in terms of system and focus over time are particularly important when considering that the writer is developing personally as a teacher, and the journal merely assists and records that process. The point is that committing something to paper enables the writer to reflect upon the experience, and thus gain much more from it than if it were simply to pass unremarked and unconsidered in the routine of teaching. The journal is instrumental in developing the teacher's personal theories by making them deal with the meaning and significance of what happened, not simply recording the event, although that initial record is the necessary starting point.

The way in which journals work is best demonstrated by a few actual examples. I have already included two examples of entries from teacher journals above ('waste' and 'my influence on their reaction') which provide excellent departure points for action research projects. But, because journal writing and observation reporting have to be learned, these starting points are often very hesitant and inadequate. For instance,

> Friday: Period 7 and 8 *Proof of Geometrical Theorems*.
> The attempts to fill in the sheets had not been good and the lesson was very 'flat' going through them. Some of the brighter ones seemed to understand, but others just found it hard going.

That reporting of this common experience is notably short of data. Not much can be done with mere generalities: 'some of the brighter ones seem to understand, but others just found it hard going'. Which are which and what is meant by 'brighter' and 'understanding'? The test of a good entry is whether it is possible to generate specific hypotheses. It is not possible to answer any specific questions about this first entry, or even indeed, general questions, such as 'Am I teaching well?' which are themselves extremely vague and beg all kinds of other questions. There is no such thing as pure description, so reflection on and analysis of the selection of data, thought and experience which has inevitably gone on, should appear somewhere. Such entries should at least have been prefaced with some indication as to why they were chosen as entries, that is, how they were problematic to the writer. Such 'embryonic' journal entries are typical of the early stages of journal writing, and they are never wasted because every entry has some possibilities. In this case it is possible to work with the teacher on the extent to which they are teaching to the capable pupils, how and why this is so, and what they could do about it.

But this entry can also be taken as a starting point for an analysis of structural features of the system which present teachers with the problem of teaching to individual differences when all pupils are required to do the same thing at the same time in the same time in the same way. Discussions of homogeneous classes, equal opportunity, affirmative action, fairness, needs and the like can all be anchored on an analysis of this particular 'bounded instance' if it is treated as an example of how the values espoused by the system are manifested in the ongoing everyday interactions of which all teaching ultimately consists.

This next example of a journal entry is rather different in that it is well written in informational terms, and the teacher is beginning to ask questions which indicate an emerging values critique.

> It is not hard to understand how good teacher-student communication can break down. There has to be a lot of patience and understanding to avoid the breakdown that occurs in the following example – a true and often occurring incident that happens in junior primary grades.
>
> 1. T: Does anyone know how to play Simon Says
> 2. Boy: We all do what Simon Says.
> 3. T: Yes, do only what Simon Says. Do not do anything when someone says 'I say do something'.
>
> (T. begins the game with): Simon Says, raise your hands. All the children raise their hands except John. Then T. says 'Simon Says, touch your toes'. All except John touch toes.
>
> 4. T: 'I say put hands on hips'. All but two children do not follow: John is still confused.
> 5. T: Now, who would like to be Simon Says?
> 6. Girl: 'Simon says to raise your arms' – all do it.
> 7. T: Who else would like to be Simon Says?
> 8. Boy: 'Simon says to raise your arms' – all do it.
> 9. T: Who would like to be next?
> 10. 2nd Boy: 'Simon says to raise your arms'. All do it.

> With this constant repetition the teacher intervened. The teacher became irritable due to the repetition, stated she'd be Simon, and marched them off to another activity.
>
> For good communication, teacher must take time to explain game again and rethink her tactics as instructions were obviously not clear.
>
> How many times this lack of understanding may occur in our children's learning due to our own fault, and of which we are unaware.

This is a good entry because it provides sufficient information for us to begin to form alternative hypotheses about what is happening which allows us to make further trouble for this teacher.

What is revealed by the transcript is interesting because the language quoted suggests very strongly that the source of the problem is as the teacher said, indeed a communication problem between the teacher and the students, but it is not one which resulted in the students' inability to play the game. The teacher's comments reveal that the problem is seen by this teacher as being an inadequacy in the instructions given. But if one looks at the precise wording of the instruction in (5), and remembers that in classrooms the usual indication of willingness to contribute is to raise hands, then one can see that it is possible that the students are already playing the game, in which case they know not to raise their hands unless 'Simon Says'. The pupils who call out (6, 8 and 10) are not then being 'Simon', but are giving themselves permission to raise their hands to indicate that they want to be 'Simon', which they could not do if they were told, 'Raise your hands if you want to be Simon'. The communication problem is, therefore, not that the pupils do not understand the game, but that they and the teacher misunderstand each other about when the game has started.

This entry is a good example of the way in which data can be used to find alternative diagnoses of what is happening in a situation. Without the transcript, it would be very difficult to generate a hypothesis alternative to the one that the children have not understood. The transcript enables us to see that it is worthwhile checking out whether it is perhaps the teacher who has not understood the children's game. One must never lose sight of the fact that the alternative reading is hypothetical, however, and that it must be verified by, for instance, checking it out with the pupils.

This last example relates more clearly to the concerns of traditional classroom teachers, though that research can do little to help this teacher with what is essentially a perceptual problem requiring professional judgement. However, the incident does reveal to this teacher the way in which she is arriving at judgements about her pupils and their understanding of her, which is a matter very much bound up with the system of values which gives rise to her perceptions and judgements. As such it is clearly action researchable.

> I believe the climate in my classroom is warm and relaxed as well as controlled. On most occasions very few disciplinary measures need to be used to control the children as they work well alone and respond with an intrinsic motivation.
>
> Until fairly recently I usually have been the 'leader' when I decided in a game of 'word bingo' (utilising basal reader words) that I would allow children to hold up the cards for the others to see and thus locate in their game sheet.
>
> I chose a responsible child to begin with and found that even though I was closely present, the children began to talk and lose concentration.
>
> *Comments:*
>
> 1. Although only a small amount of responsibility was assigned, perhaps the children were not quite ready.
> 2. Should I have assisted the child with the cards?
> 3. Should I have moved around the room, thus my movement the control factor?
> 4. One conclusion is that assignment of tasks and responsibilities needs a more guided approach.

This is a really interesting entry in that the statement of belief in the first paragraph seems to contradict much of the rest of the entry. One thing which the entry said to me was about how the children perceive the activity demanded: a school is a place where if teacher does it with them (the pupils), then it is work and so they don't talk; but if they do it by themselves, then it is play and so they may talk. I suggested that this teacher should examine whether the pupils are as intrinsically motivated as she believed they were, and that this could be done through careful definition of terms which can then be illustrated by examples of her own practice and the children's behaviour in her own classroom. To be so directive at that stage is not to say that the teacher would necessarily decide to do things differently in the end: such an examination may well result in the teacher deciding that she has the balance about right, and that no changes are necessary. On the other hand, the whole question of what that balance is in her classroom at present, how it is constituted and maintained and how it can be enhanced lends itself very appositely to action research. Once again we can see how such concrete instances always form possible entry point into an action research project.

You will notice that although there is a substantial body of research literature about the concepts used in this last entry (discipline, motivation, concentration) there is none that I know of which will help her with the problem. We do not know what enables a teacher to know how what kind of balance should be achieved. Yet teachers operate such a balance constantly, though they tend to do so (as this teacher does) on autopilot. Whilst one cannot problematise all aspects of our professional practice all the time, all aspects should be problematised at some time in our teaching lives, and this would seem to be an aspect of this teacher's practice ripe for problematisation.

Space prevents going further into the teachers' journals here, and I and others have already written about them elsewhere (Holly 1984; Rainer 1980; Tripp 1984a, 1984b). In sum, the single most important points are that no entry is too limited to use in some way, and that the recording and analytical skills necessary to problematise practice need to be acquired over time: journal writing has to be very sensitively taught. But, apart from the fact that learning the skills is a worthwhile end in itself, the journal is important to action research specifically in two valuable aspects. First, because the teachers are choosing what to write about, it allows the participant action researchers to set the agenda for the project. Second, it facilitates and records reflective thinking and critical analysis, and in so doing it becomes a kind of interaction and formative data gathering and generating procedure.

Conclusion

In this paper I have attempted to put action research into the context of professional in-service development for teachers. I began by outlining the basic process, going on to deal with the issues of theory and practice, kinds of project and facilitation, before showing how action research may be initiated through a journal. I hope that I have made it clear that my view of action research is that it is not so much a paradigm as a group of closely related practices, having the common aim of understanding and improving practice through strategic action which is achieved by proceeding in a spiral of planning, action, monitoring and analysing activities. In education, professional action-research takes the form of systematic experimental teaching.

The principal outcome of using action research in teacher in-service is enabling people to become what could be termed 'critical teacher-researchers'. Action research contests the all too frequently accepted aphorism:

> Those who can teach, teach;
> those who can't teach teach teachers;
> those who can't teach teachers, do educational research.

There is a sense in which every teacher is a 'teacher-researcher': every teacher is constantly observing and thinking about the class, the materials, and their own teaching performance. Most of this study is, of course, not 'research' in that it is unsystematic, and unconscious, and unpublished.

On the other hand, the 'educational researcher' is usually someone who is not teaching, often has little if any teaching experience, and uses methods for research which are totally unsuited to the 'practitioner-investigator'. Unfortunately for teaching and classroom research, many of the accepted methods are inappropriate to the situation, research concerns are not those of the practising teacher and the results often tell us nothing of practical value we did not know intuitively in the first place. The full-time researcher will often produce 'hard' data in numerical form which are then handled through statistics, presenting results in terms of significances, which are often meaningless to the teacher, and may account for only a small proportion of the total variance.

The key difference between using researcher initiated classroom research of a more traditional kind and action research, is that the former tends to reproduce its own concerns instead of drawing upon and developing the teachers'. This is inevitable so long as the academic courses taken prior to research are based upon the corpus of existing research. Australian teachers are exposed only to what has generally been researched, and as new research is generally derived from and built upon existing research, a cycle of reproduction occurs which tends to limit teacher-researchers to certain topics and delegitimise their own concerns. Critical action research enables teachers both to formulate and act upon their own concerns developing themselves with and through their practice. That is what I believe that to be both action research's greatest strength and its greatest vulnerability, for unless primacy is given to those aspects, unless they are valued, protected and nurtured, action research will, like other forms of classroom research, become the domain of those who do not (or cannot) teach.

I think I have made clear in the paper the fact that action research both benefits and suffers from a recent resurgence of interest and a virtual reconception of the process in Britain and Australia over the past decade. Some obvious advantages are that it is a very active and lively field, and that it is growing fast and responsively under the guidance of some first class practitioners and academics who have a genuine concern for professionalism, social justice and rigorous scholarship. On the other hand, action research sometimes has the appearance of a faddish, even charismatic movement, susceptible to all the dangers of a bandwagon approach. Three decades ago Lewin's original formulation of action research was subverted by positivistic outsiders so that it lost the essential aim of participant understanding, and the movement largely dissipated. I believe that currently the greatest threat to the integrity of action research comes from teacher educators and administrators who are tempted to use merely the technical form as a means of engineering professional teacher development. Whilst many teacher educators are doing all they can to foster action research, they have to recognise the danger of ignoring the inherent tension of their position, namely that of being one person supporting another in their coming to act independently. It may well be that the widespread adoption of the process by those who see it as another algorithm for teacher education will again subvert action research and bring it into disrepute. The best guard against such a danger is for teacher educators to regard themselves as facilitators not teachers, and to action research their own facilitation at the level of critical professionalism.

References

Apple, M. (1982) *Education and Power.* Routledge and Kegan Paul, Boston.

Berger, P.L. and Luckmann, T. (1976) *The Social Construction of Reality.* Penguin, London.

Boomer, G. (1981) *Addressing the problem of elsewhereness: A case for action research in schools.* Paper delivered at the National Invitational Conference on Action Research, sponsored by the Education Research and Development Committee, Deakin University, May. Available in mimeo from the author.

Bourdieu, P. (1977) *Outline of a Theory of Practice.* Translated by R. Nie, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Carr, W. and Kemmis, S. (1983) *Becoming Critical: Knowing Through Action Research.* Deakin University Press, Geelong.

Creek, R. (1982) Implementing a 'Contract System' using action research. In S. Kemmis (Ed.) *The Action Research Reader.* Deakin University.

Elliott, J. (1976) *Developing hypotheses about classrooms from teachers' practical constructs: an account of the work of the Ford Teaching Project.* Paper prepared as a contribution to a symposium on 'Modes of thought among teachers' at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April 19-23.

Elliott, J., Adleman, C. *et al.* (1976) *The Ford Teaching Project.* Institute of Education, Cambridge.

Giroux, H.A. (1983) *Theory and Resistance in Education: Pedagogy for the Opposition.* Bergin and Garvey, South Hadley, Mass.

Grundy, S. (1982) Three modes of action research. *Curriculum Perspectives,* 3 (2), 22-34.

Grundy, S. (1984) Beyond professionalism: Action research as critical pedagogy. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Murdoch University, Western Australia.

Grundy, S. and Kemmis, S. (1981a) Educational action research in Australia: The state of the art (an overview). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Adelaide, November.

Grundy, S. and Kemmis, S. (1981b) Social theory, group dynamics and action research. Paper presented as part of an action research symposium at 11th Annual Meeting of the South Pacific Association for Teacher Education, Adelaide, July.

Habermas, J. (1974) *Theory and Practice.* Translated by J. Viertel, Heinemann, London.

Hodge, R.I. and Tripp, D.H. (1986) Children and television: a semiotic approach. Polity Press, Oxford.

Holly, M.J. (1984) *Keeping a Personal-Professional Journal.* Deakin University, Victoria.

Kemmis, S. and McTaggart, R. (1982) *The Action Research Planner.* Deakin University, Victoria.

Lather, P. (1984) *Research as Praxis.* Paper presented at the Sixth Curriculum Theorizing Conference, Bergamo Center, Dayton, Ohio, November. (Ms. available from the author at Mankato State University, Mankato, MN 56001).

Lewin, K. (1946) Action research and minority problems. *Journal of Social Issues,* 2, 34-46.

Lewin, K. (1947) Feedback problems of social diagnosis and action. *Human Relations,* 1, 147-53.

Lewin, K. (1952) Group decisions and social change, in G.E. Swanson, T.M. Newcomb and F.E. Harley (Eds.) *Reading in Social Psychology.* Holt, New York.

Rainer, T. (1980) *The new diary.* Angus and Robertson, London.

Tripp, D.H. (1981) Action research on the child's televisual experience and school. Working paper No. 9 of the Active Eye Project, Murdoch University.

Tripp, D.H. (1984a) *The teacher researcher's action research journal.* Paper for external version of course E491: Classroom Research project. Murdoch University, Western Australia.

Tripp, D.H. (1984b) *From autopilot to critical consciousness using journals to problematize successful teaching.* Paper presented at the Sixth Curriculum Theorizing Conference, Bergamo Center, Dayton, Ohio, November. (Ms. available from the author at Murdoch University, Western Australia.)

Walker, A. (1983) Televisual Experiences in the School Context. Unpublished B.Ed. (Hons.) Thesis, Murdoch University, Western Australia.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH STUDYING TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

Michael J. Dunkin

Close analysis of teacher behaviour towards students reveals many anomalies. Certain types of students are systematically but involuntarily treated differently from others and teachers' reactions to students' contributions are sometimes incongruous. Do teachers need to be more aware of the details of their behaviour? What are the main dimensions of teaching behaviour that teachers need to know about? How might they obtain such knowledge? How does one discover the importance of variations in one's behaviour in the classroom? What are teaching skills? How might teachers apply ways of observing their behaviour in order to enhance their teaching skills? This chapter pursues these topics and questions in an attempt to show that teachers stand to gain a lot by knowing themselves.

In a recent study (Dunkin and Doenau 1982) of a sample of Year 6 lessons in some inner suburban schools in Sydney it was found that teachers treated some types of students very differently from others. Male students received or gave more than their share of every type of classroom behaviour observed. When a male was asked a question the teacher was more likely to follow-up his answer with another question directed to the same student. Males received much more than their share of questions that demanded thinking rather than simple recall of facts. Differences in what being in the classroom was like for males and females were especially dramatic for females of non-Anglo ethnic background. The latter received only about half their share of questions in general and less than one-third their share of questions demanding complex thought in particular. On almost every category of behaviour observed, the non-Anglo female students received and gave much less than would be expected according to their numbers in the classes. However, when they did contribute they were told a disproportionately large number of times that their answers were unacceptable.

In an earlier study of Australian classrooms (Tisher 1970) the concern was not whether teachers treated certain types of students differently from others, but whether students experienced difficulty more in answering some types of questions than others and whether there were corresponding differences in teachers' reactions to students' answers. It was discovered in the sample of junior secondary school science lessons observed that students found it particularly difficult to answer questions demanding causal explanation (*e.g.* Why is it so?) Furthermore, in such cases teachers sometimes tolerated irrelevant answers.

A close look at the talk that passes between teachers and students in classrooms reveals many anomalous events. Consider the following incidents that occurred in Year 6 Social Studies lessons in some Sydney schools (Doenau 1977):

Example 1
T Why is that?
P. Because they're in December and January and February and March, they've got high rainfall, and then most of the other ones have got low rainfall.
T. Low rainfall.
Example 2
T. What would they do then?
P. They'd kill a few of their animals.
T. Kill their animals.
Example 3
P. The crops won't have any goodness in them.
T. The crops won't have very much goodness in them. Right.
Example 4
T. Why would you plant it say at the end of November or early December?
P. Oh, oh, the rainfall's not too much and not too little then.
T. Well, if you want good crops you want good rainfall.

While it was common for teachers to repeat students' answers verbatim, sometimes distortions to the content of answers as in the above examples occurred. Does it matter if a teacher repeats only the last couple of words of a student's answer or changes the answer so that 'a few' becomes 'all' and 'any goodness' becomes 'very much goodness', or if a teacher's comments seem not to relate to the student's answer at all? What do students make of such behaviour? That they have not been heard properly? That they were wrong? That 'few' means the same as 'all'?

Describing What Happens in Classrooms

It is probably true that in the above examples the teachers were not fully aware of their anomalous behaviour. Teachers have seldom been trained to observe and monitor classroom behaviour in the detail required for them to identify such instances. While some teachers might develop such sensitivity through experience in teaching, most would require carefully structured guidance as well, for classrooms are full of complexity.

Teachers need to be able to monitor the events that take place in classrooms for many different reasons. The classroom is the place in which most curriculum plans are implemented. Teachers are required to analyse and evaluate the quality of the learning experiences provided for students. They must observe students' behaviour in order to diagnose learning problems and to assess the effectiveness of remedial activities. Teachers need such information to make decisions regarding changes in activities, suitability of materials and appropriateness of social structures, such as small groups. They are responsible for the emotional tone prevailing in the class and for managing affairs to promote cooperation, confidence, independence, enthusiasm and other desired attributes in students. To fulfil all these duties properly, teachers need to be highly proficient observers not just of their students but of themselves for what they do has a strong influence upon what students do.

The systematic observation of classrooms over recent decades has led to the identification of several facets in terms of which behaviour can be described. One of them is the *substantive* facet which has to do with subject matter and enables the observer to distinguish between lessons in Mathematics, Geography, Biology and so on. Within such divisions are bodies of facts, concepts, principles, laws and theories. As these are observed in classrooms, judgements can be made concerning the coverage of content specified in syllabuses and the appropriateness of assessment devices such as examinations. Traditionally, the larger part of the schooling has been concerned with this facet and it has attracted much attention from teachers, curriculum developers and text book writers.

Another facet of classroom activity is the *cognitive* facet. Lessons which differ substantively in that they are about different subjects, such as History and Economics, can be similar in the types of thinking processes they engage. They might demand of students nothing more than the recitation of factual material. Alternatively, they might emphasise complex intellectual operations such as causal reasoning, evaluating or predicting consequences. Especially since the publication of 'Bloom's Taxonomy' (Bloom *et al.* 1956), educationists have been concerned about the types of cognitive skills and abilities encouraged in schools and most easily observed by focusing on questioning and answering in classrooms.

The *pedagogical* facet of classroom behaviour concerns the use of four main 'moves' - structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting - according to Bellack and his colleagues (Bellack *et al.* 1966). When the teacher makes statements that announce activities, provide information, convey plans for the lesson and so on, the pedagogical move of *structuring* is being performed. When directions are being given, or questions are being asked, *soliciting*, that is attempts to elicit responses from others, is occurring. Those *responses* themselves, then, are pedagogical moves, and if they arouse or become the occasion for reactions such as comments of 'Correct!' or 'Well done!', the *reactions* are also pedagogical moves. The teacher's decision to redirect an unanswered question to another student, to choose only students with their hands raised, to ask another student to repeat a response or to stop a sequence of questions and answers and resume lecturing are further occurrences within the pedagogical facet. The consistent patterns exhibited in the classroom occurrence of pedagogical moves led Bellack and his colleagues to argue that when teachers and students talked to each other they adhered to rules as though they were playing a language game. Hence the term 'move'.

Part of the time when teachers and students are 'playing the game' they are talking about the subject matter of the lesson, but for some of the time they talk about other matters, such as who shall do what and when and where. Sometimes deviancy occurs and teachers have to restore order, to call someone to attention. Teachers arrange for materials to be distributed, for work to be handed in, for different students to work at different tasks. Some of the time they perform these roles verbally, but sometimes they achieve the desired effects by nodding, gesturing, sending notes, and so on. This *managerial* facet cuts across other facets but is clearly distinguishable from them. It, like the substantive facet discussed above, has traditionally been a common focus in the enterprise of teacher education. Teachers' abilities to control or discipline their classes reside principally within the managerial facet.

Classrooms are also places where feelings abound. Indeed, a visitor from the proverbial 'other planet' might well conclude that classrooms are courtrooms where the youth of our culture come to be judged, so much a part of them is the process of evaluation of students. Philip Jackson, while pointing out that the frequency of tests is the most obvious difference between classrooms and other social settings when it comes to evaluation, also argues that 'there is more to it than that'.

> The dynamics of classroom evaluation are difficult to describe, principally because they are so complex. Evaluations derive from more than one *source*, the *conditions of their communication* may vary in several different ways, they may have one or more of several *referents*, and they may range in *quality* from intensely positive to intensely negative. Moreover, these variations refer only to objective, or impersonal features or evaluation. When the subjective or personal meanings of these events are considered, the picture becomes even more complex. (Jackson 1968)

This ubiquitous phenomenon of evaluation contributes more than any other process to the emotional tone or affective climate of the classroom but not to the exclusion of other contributors. The warmth or otherwise of a social milieu depends on such matters as a member's perception of opportunity to participate as well as on explicit statements of worth and the former can be revealed through quite subtle cues. This *affective facet* of classroom behaviour involves acceptance, praise, criticism and rejection. It involves dominance, power, warmth, initiation, participation, competition, autocracy and democracy. It has been the most commonly observed feature of classrooms in educational research.

For teachers to become competent systematic observers of their own and their students' behaviour it is important that they be aware of the above facets and the more specific categories within them. A carefully analysed audiotape recording of just a few lessons can be helpful here, particularly if the events of the lesson are compared with lesson plans and any discrepancies between the two lead to reflection by the teacher.

The description of what happens in classrooms usually includes information concerning one or more of the above facets. The information can be obtained informally through ordinary sensory perceptions of participants or formally through the application of carefully devised observational schedules designed to provide objective, reliable and quite specific data. Sometimes the information can be presented quantitatively so that rates of occurrence of particular categories of behaviour are available. Alternatively, the emphasis might be on more literary descriptions that present overall impressions. It will be seen below that the identification and development of technical skills of teaching has relied in recent times more upon the former approach.

Identifying the Skills of Pedagogy

Teaching behaviours are effective to the extent that they cause desirable events to occur in classrooms and produce desired longer term learnings in students. The former have become known as *process criteria* while the latter are *product criteria* of teaching effectiveness.

The types of classroom events that have become valued and are suitable as criteria for judging the quality of teaching are debatable. In general, however, there are associated with each of the facets mentioned above one or more categories of classroom behaviour that are thought to be particularly desirable. For example, it is clearly desirable that the substantive material specified in curriculum plans be covered and that facts, concepts, theories and so on that are part of those plans be presented accurately and unambiguously. It is also clearly desirable that students be engaged in a variety of cognitive operations in relation to the substantive material, but that the complexity of those operations be appropriate for the level of cognitive development of the students. It would probably also be argued that students should be encouraged to ask questions, that teachers should provide informative feedback to students, that noise-levels should be kept low when certain types of tasks are being performed, that student attentiveness should be high and that a positive, cooperative and non-threatening atmosphere should pervade the classroom.

Most of these qualities or conditions of classroom functioning are valued because they are themselves thought to be conducive to longer-term learnings in students. That is, most process criteria are thought to be associated with product criteria and are justified on those grounds. Some are not, however, but are held to be valid for other reasons such as their intrinsic worth or their connection with widely accepted ethical principles concerning ways in which people should treat each other.

Product criteria of teaching effectiveness consist mainly of the knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes that students acquire as a result of teachers' efforts. They are usually thought of in relation to educational objectives but they probably do not always correspond to those objectives. Unplanned, even unwanted, learnings can be just as valid and important criteria of teaching effectiveness as others.

Teaching behaviours that are thought to contribute to desired classroom events and/or to desired student learnings are the technical skills of teaching. Sometimes such teaching skills are arrived at on the basis of professional experience and intuition. Sometimes they are inferred from laboratory research on learning in human and infrahuman species. Sometimes they are inferred from investigations of human behaviour in social contexts other than classrooms. Then, of course, there are those that have emerged from the direct study of teaching and its effects. This last source of knowledge about skills of teaching has been arrived at in two main ways. In one of them, observations are made of a number of classrooms, tests are applied to the student and associations between the observed teaching behaviour and process and/or product criteria are explored. In the other, a more experimental approach is adopted and the teaching behaviours are actually manipulated, either by having the researcher or a close associate enact certain teaching strategies, or by training a group of teachers to implement them, and seeing the extent to which process and/or product criteria are affected in comparison with some standard teaching practice.

Many attempts have been made to arrive at lists of teaching skills. One list developed at Stanford University (Allen and Ryan 1969) was as follows:

(a) Stimulus variation: using stimulating material and variations in movement, gestures, interaction techniques, and sensory channels in order to alleviate boredom and inattentiveness;

(b) Set induction: preparing students for a lesson by clarifying its goals, relating it to students' prior knowledge and skills, through using analogies, demonstrations, and posing stimulating problems;

(c) Closure: assisting students to establish links between new and past knowledge by reviewing and applying material to familiar and new examples, cases, and situations;

(d) Silence and nonverbal cues: reducing reliance on teacher talk by encouraging teachers in the proper use of pauses and in the effective use of facial expressions, body movement, head movement, and gestures;

(e) Reinforcing student participation: encouraging students to respond through the use of praise and acceptance as well as nonverbal cues such as nodding and smiling;

(f) Fluency in asking questions: eliminating unnecessary hesitations and repetitions of questions;

(g) Probing questions: skill in framing questions which lead students to elaborate on, or raise the level of, their responses;

(h) Higher order questions: questions which elicit responses that require higher intellectual levels from students instead of responses that involve only fact stating or descriptions;

(i) Divergent questions: questions which elicit student responses that are unconventional, imaginative, and cannot be judged simply to be correct or incorrect.

Other skills to become incorporated in the Stanford list were 'recognising attending behaviour', 'illustrating and use of examples', 'lecturing', 'planned repetition', and 'completeness of communication'.

An Australian team of authors (Turney *et al.* 1973) developed a system for classifying teaching skills under which seven categories emerged. These were:

(a) Motivational skills, including reinforcing student behaviour, varying the stimulus, set induction, encouraging student involvement, accepting and supporting student feelings, displaying warmth and enthusiasm, and recognising and meeting students' needs;

(b) Presentation and communication skills, including explaining, dramatising, reading, using audiovisual aids, closure, using silence, encouraging student feedback, clarity, expressiveness, pacing, and planning repetition;

(c) Questioning skills, including refocusing and redirecting, probing, high level questions, convergent and divergent questions, stimulating student initiative;

(d) Skills of small group and individual instruction, such as organising small group work, developing independent learning, counselling, encouraging cooperative activity and student to student interaction;

(e) Developing student thinking, such as fostering inquiry learning, guiding discovery, developing concepts, using simulation, role playing and gaming to stimulate thought, developing student problem-solving skills, encouraging students to evaluate and make judgements, and developing critical thinking;

(f) Evaluative skills, including recognising and assessing student progress, diagnosing learning difficulties, providing remedial techniques, encouraging self-evaluation, and handling evaluative discussion;

(g) Classroom management and discipline, including recognising attending and non-attending behaviour, supervising class group work, encouraging task-oriented behaviour, giving directions, and coping with multiple issues.

While lists of teaching skills can only be formulated tentatively and particular inclusions provoke disagreements among teachers and researchers, they have proved useful in teacher education. They are employed in training programs involving observation, guided self-analysis and systematic feedback by oneself and others in ways described in the next section.

Using Teacher-Pupil Interaction Schemes to Improve the Skills of Pedagogy

Systems devised for the observation of interactions between teachers and students can be so simple as to be concerned with only a few categories within one facet of classroom behaviour or so complex as to deal with all those facets described at the beginning of this chapter. The more complex systems have been used more in research while the simpler ones have been used more in teacher education.

The study of classroom interaction can be helpful in enhancing the quality of teaching in three main ways:

(1) It can provide teachers with knowledge which helps them to think about teaching in general, to make plans, to anticipate effects and to theorise about teaching and learning.

(2) It can provide teachers with a way of obtaining feedback on their own classroom behaviour so that they can know themselves as teachers, assess the immediate effects of their behaviour and evaluate their efforts to teach. Such feedback can come from themselves or from others, such as peers and supervisors.

(3) It can serve as the basis for systematic training for the acquisition and retention of technical skills of teaching such as those presented in the previous section. The observation systems are useful in defining the skills, in providing initial or baseline measures of skill performance and in evaluating attempts to change performance towards specified criteria.

A good example of how the first use is put to effect is the use of short extracts of lessons to present 'critical incidents' of classroom interaction illustrating common and controversial occasions when a particular educational value or issue is illustrated. A student might diverge from the expected answer to a teacher's question and present an unconventional but highly imaginative response. The teacher has to make a decision as to how best to react. Should the student be told that the answer was not the one that was sought? Should the student be complimented for the creative response? What are the principles involved?

One of the chief advantages of this approach is that it permits highly abstract educational principles to be discussed in the contexts of quite specific, concrete and familiar incidents. It allows teachers to explore in principle a whole range of alternative reactions to quite common types of occurrences. It allows them to sharpen their perception of such incidents and to obtain practice in responding in principle to them. Teachers' abilities to conceptualise, theorise and make interactive decisions about teaching should thereby be enhanced. Examples of the use of this approach are to be found in Cruickshank's work (1967).

Whilst there might be some advantage in having teachers explore problems of teaching with detachment from their own efforts, information from their own classrooms provides them with knowledge of results and reinforcement that they cannot obtain otherwise. A good example of how this second use is put to good effect relates to the research results reported at the beginning of this chapter. Since the lessons analysed in that study (Dunkin and Doenau 1982) were recorded on videotape, each teacher involved was given a copy of the videotape so that it might be used for inservice education. Recordings used for that purpose might have been analysed by the teacher alone or in the presence of a colleague and some of the discrepancies in the treatment of some students could have been identified and discussed. Such questions could be discussed as whether differences in participation were due to the teacher's not providing opportunities or to students' reticence, whether some students needed more encouragement than they received and whether cultural mores should be breached in order to promote equitability of participation.

The main difference between this procedure and the former one is that feedback on the individual teacher's own performance is made possible, especially as the result of self-analysis and the classroom events can be explored in relation to the specific context of objectives, school, students, time of year, grade level and curriculum in which that teacher works. The presence of video-recording equipment in many schools has made it possible for teachers to organise and produce their own recordings and take the initiative in this important aspect of professional development.

There are difficulties with the above approach, however, and one of them is that teachers may view recordings of their own behaviour and still not be aware of some important elements simply because they have not learnt to conceptualise them. Extending one's ability to perceive and think about classroom phenomena can occur informally through teaching experience, contact with colleagues, and so on, but formal efforts are likely to be more efficient.

The formal training of teachers in the application of observational systems in the analysis of classroom behaviour is more often associated with the third approach listed above. Here the emphasis is on equipping teachers with the behavioural skills that are necessary to implement the decisions they make either in advance or as lessons proceed. The best known techniques for training teachers in these skills are microteaching (Allen and Ryan 1969; Turney *et al.* 1973; McIntyre *et al.* 1977) and minicourses (Borg *et al.* 1970).

Evaluating, Disseminating and Using the Results of Teacher-Pupil Interaction Schemes

A good example of the use of microteaching in an Australian context was reported by Levis (1974) at Macquarie University.

Students participating in the Macquarie program were introduced to teaching skills one at a time. First they were given printed materials containing excerpts of classroom interaction containing instances of the skill. These instances were discussed and then examples of variations in the way the skill could be used were provided, again in print medium. Students read the printed material, watched a demonstration film on which editorial captions appeared, especially when examples of the skill occurred. A typescript of the film was provided and studied both separately from and simultaneously with the film. Exercises were then presented in which students practised the skill by providing written pieces of dialogue and checking them with colleagues. Next, each student prepared a short lesson designed to allow actual performance of the skill and gave it to a small group of pupils. The lesson was videotaped and later replayed. As part of the process of obtaining feedback, each student would then apply an observational schedule devised for the practical teaching skill, to the recorded lesson. The observation schedule used in relation to the skill, 'Use of Probing Question' is contained in an appendix to this chapter.

Information provided through the application of the observation schedule was then used in conjunction with a 'Self-Evaluation Guide', suggesting points that would reduce the efficiency of the performance of the skill, to assist the student evaluate the attempt and to plan a follow-up lesson.

The minicourse concept was initiated at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in San Francisco. Between 1967 and 1971 some 20 minicourses were developed to train in-service teachers in specific classroom skills. Each minicourse involved the teacher in similar steps to those described above for microteaching, including the analysis of classroom behaviour. The distinguishing feature of minicourses was that they were self-instructional packages designed to be used by in-service teachers in their own classrooms.

Another approach to the application of classroom interaction analysis in teacher education is probably best known in association with an observation schedule developed by Flanders (1970). The Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) were devised to enable measurements to be made of the degree of direct and indirect influence used by teachers. Teachers who used more praise, acceptance and questioning than lecturing, directing and criticising were said to be relatively indirect and to foster more positive and supportive classroom environments than others. In order to increase the use of indirect influence FIAC came to be commonly used. Sometimes the program consisted solely of training in the application of FIAC to observe lessons. Sometimes practice in increasing the use of such categories as praise and acceptance was added. Feedback from self and others was included in some programs. The feature that distinguished this type of training from microteaching and minicourses was the emphasis placed on learning to use the observational system itself. This approach has also been used in relation to facets other than the affective. For example, teachers have been trained to apply observational schedules based on categories of cognitive level, such as the Bloom Taxonomy (1956) and Guilford's work. A review by Dunkin and Biddle (1974) found that in the main these approaches were effective in bringing about desired change in teachers' classroom behaviour.

By the time Turney's (1977) survey of innovation in teacher education was published, practices involving the analysis of teacher-student interaction had become common both in Australian and overseas teacher education programs at pre-service and in-service stages. Most commonly, the analysis of classroom behaviour had been associated with teaching skill oriented activities, such as microteaching, which had been criticised for being mechanistic. However, humanistic approaches to teacher development designed to overcome this problem also came to rely strongly upon the observation of interactions between teachers and students.

Wragg makes the following suggestions regarding the implementation of lesson analysis in inservice teacher education:

> . . . At its best, the spirit of enquiry engendered by teachers occasionally analysing each other's teaching is a valuable stimulus which can help avoid staleness and create an atmosphere of professional interest in improving competence. Unless some structure is provided, however, the exercise can easily lack purpose. Teachers wishing to work in this way need to consider the following sequence of steps. First of all the purpose of the analysis should be agreed. It may be that teachers wish to improve their questioning techniques, for example. Secondly, the way of working should be determined; perhaps pairs of teachers will work together, or one may be released from some commitments to observe others. Thirdly, the structure must be agreed, whether category systems are to be employed, which might require training for observers, or whether field notes will be assembled under certain relevant headings. Fourthly, there must be some kind of sensitive feedback, as teachers lacking confidence might easily be bruised by abrasive criticism. Finally, there should be a deliberate attempt to modify teaching in the light of feedback. Some of the more rigorous programs incorporating lesson analysis have effectively made each teacher the experimenter. (Wragg 1985, 3009)

Wragg concludes that there are five requirements for the student teacher in the successful use of lesson analysis. They are the learning of a variety of approaches to analysis, the observation of the student teacher's own as well as others' lessons, caution in the acceptance of fashionable methods or particular preferences, experiencing lesson analysis in the context of a coherent teacher development program, and applying the understandings emerging from analysis to the development of personal styles of teaching.

References

Allen, D.W. and Ryan, K. (1969) *Microteaching*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass.

Bellack, A.A., Hyman, R.T., Smith, F.L. Jr. and Kliebard, H.M. (1966) *The Language of the Classroom*. Teachers' College Press, New York.

Bloom, B.S. (Ed.), Englehart, M.D., Furst, J., Hill, W.H. and Krathwohl, R. (1956) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives - Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. Longmans Gree, London.

Borg, W.R., Kelley, M.L., Langer, P. and Gall, M. (1970) *The Mini Course: A Microteaching Approach to Teacher Education*. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Educational Services, Berkeley.

Cruickshank, D.R. (1967) *Teaching Problems Laboratory*. Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Doenau, S.J. (1977) Teaching Behaviour and Pupil Performance. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Macquarie University.

Dunkin, M.J. and Biddle, B.J. (1974) *The Study of Teaching*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Dunkin, M.J. and Doenau, S.J. (1982) Ethnicity, Classroom Interaction and Student Achievement, in *The Australian Journal of Education*, 26 (2), 171-89.

Flanders, N.A. (1970) *Analyzing Teaching Behaviour*. Addison Wesley, New York.

Guilford, J.P. The Structure of the Intellect, in *Psychological Bulletin*, 53, 267-93.

Jackson, P.W. (1968) *Life in Classrooms.* Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Levis, D.S. (1974) Effects of Practice and Feedback Variations on Questioning Skills and Attitudes. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Macquarie University.

McIntyre, D.I., MacLeod, G.R. and Griffiths, R. (Eds.) (1977) *Investigations of Microteaching.* Croom Helm, London.

Tisher, R.P. (1970) The Nature of Verbal Discourse in Classrooms, in Campbell, W.J. (Ed.) *Scholars in Context.* John Wiley and Sons, Sydney.

Turney, C., Clift, J.C., Dunkin, M.J. and Traill, R.D. (1973) *Microteaching: Research, Theory and Practice.* Sydney University Press, Sydney.

Turney, C. (Ed.) (1977) *Innovation in Teacher Education.* Sydney University Press, Sydney.

Wragg, E.C. (1985) Lesson Analysis in Teacher Education, in Husen, T. and Postlethwaite, T.N. (Eds.) *International Encyclopedia of Education: Research and Studies.* Pergamon Press, Oxford, 3002-12.

Appendix. Use of Probing Questions.

Lesson Observation Schedule

TEACHER: (Code) DATE:

OBSERVER:

Note: A probing question must follow a student's response and be based on that response. The question will seek to make the pupil go beyond his initial response by *pondering on his answer, considering its adequacy* or *justifying* it. The probe may also be in the form of *a prompt* to help the student with his answer, or using the answer to refocus on a related issue.

Type of Question	Tally	Total
NON-PROBING No attempt to follow up student response		
PROBING		
1. *Prompting* The teacher gives the pupil a hint as to required response.		
2. *Asking for Clarification* Teacher's question implies that pupil's response was inadequate in terms of clarity, *e.g.* 'What do you mean by that?'		
3. *Asking for Amplification* A more detailed reply is required by the teacher. 'What else?'; 'tell me more' is implied.		
4. *Asking for Justification* Student is asked to reconsider the reasons for his answer. 'Why' is often used in this type of probe.		
5. *Refocus* The teacher uses the pupil's answer to refocus on a related issue, *e.g.* T: 'Well would you give the same reply if you were a farmer?'		

From Levis, D.S. (1974).

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH PARTICIPATION IN ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

Bill Mulford

This paper commences with a belief that effective inservice needs to focus on current teachers for staff development and that for more successful staff development in schools there is a need to give greater emphasis to implementation. It argues that the most important aspect of effective implementation is first obtaining effective collaboration among teachers (and between teachers and the community). In other words, awareness of, and skill development in, group and organisational processes must be a first step in any inservice and change.

This chapter states a major need for effective professional development (staff collaboration), describes one approach that successfully responds to the need (Organisation Development) and then examines some of the many issues to be considered in effectively carrying out the approach.

The recent report from the review committee on *Quality of Education in Australia* (Karmel 1985) is supportive of the directions taken in the chapter. As the following quotations from the report show, there is at least one clear emphasis on the related issues of participation, coordination, and whole school activities.

> A recurring theme in Commonwealth guidelines for the administration of its programs has been the fostering of participation in the making of decisions about program operations . . . (p48)
>
> Ways must be found to encourage more teachers to . . . plan consistent and coordinated approaches to the curriculum; (p128)
>
> . . . Whole school activities have advantages over provisions for individuals where the intention is to change a school's approach or to develop better coordination of programs. They also ensure that all staff members participate, in contrast to provisions for individuals, where self selection tends to operate and there is the likelihood that those most in need of assistance do not seek it. (p128)

Conclusion 14.59 from the report underlines the importance of this emphasis:

> Teacher development, particularly through inservice course, should be a high priority for Commonwealth programs. Such a priority is in contrast to the severe reduction in the scale of the Commonwealth's contribution to professional development since 1976 . . . There should be a balance between the needs of individual teachers and the whole school; some inservice activities should be on a whole school basis. (pp195-6)

In the past, one unfortunate problem in mounting whole school activities, such as Organisation Development, has been the attempt by local committees who distribute inservice resources to want to appear 'fair' by scattering their allocated resources to as many schools as possible. Given the low success rate of many past inservice efforts this may have been a mistake.

But it is time to turn to the need, a response to the need and some issues for consideration in carrying out the response for obtaining effective professional development in our schools.

What is Needed?

I believe very strongly that it is with teachers, those presently in the service, that there is the hope and the possibility for an improved educational future. Further, I believe that this future depends on the formulation of new kinds of inservice activities and programs. Based on an understanding of the realities of schools and of teaching, as well as an appreciation of the demands that are being placed on schools and teachers, new and varied perspectives must be developed to guide school improvement efforts that focus on the teachers, that is, on professional or staff development.

Further, I believe that for more successful staff development in schools there is a need to give greater emphasis to implementation, and that the most important aspect of effective implementation is obtaining collaboration among teachers (and between teachers and the community).

That gaining collaborative effort, and thus more effective implementation, is difficult should not deter us. Attempted change in schools has, for example, been likened to the punching of warm jelly: if you hit it hard and often enough, you can splatter some of it, but it soon takes the form of the bowl as it cools and then congeals. But this attitude is based on the mistaken belief that planning and developing changes is the same as implementing them.

Many of the unsuccessful attempts to effect change in schools may have had potential. The problem has been, however, that those involved in planning and developing these changes have basically had a content orientation. In other words, their underlying assumption has been that if they could agree on new goals in terms of curriculum, teacher inputs, evaluation, and so on, that is, if they could develop superior content, somehow the schools would respond positively and implement the changes as they were planned. This does not necessarily follow.

To state my position more succinctly, we must learn how to lose time in order to gain time. Awareness of, and skill development in, group and organisational processes must be a first step in any effective change. Instead of others trying to insert something into a school's culture, inservice through proven staff development activities should first be trying to help that culture develop an awareness of and a responsiveness to itself. Developing these processes will take time, time which some will find difficult to justify in the whirling carnival of activity that is a school. But it will be time very well spent given the huge amount of time and effort that will be saved when a staff addresses the sensitive problems a school may face with both a feeling of being comfortable with one another and a confidence in their ability to work together to affect the quality of life in their school.

Are these any 'proven' staff development activities, any approaches that I, as an external consultant, have found to result in the effective collaboration of a school staff on concerns they say they face? One activity stands out – Organisation Development (OD). It is my intention in what follows to briefly define and describe OD, list the indicators for successful OD and then more fully examine some of the many issues that need to be considered in effectively carrying out a successful OD project.

A Response to the Need

Definitions of OD are increasingly to be found in the education administration literature. It is not the purpose of this article to survey this literature although the interested reader will find an adequate introduction in such sources as Dillon-Peterson (1981), Fullan *et al.* (1978) and Mulford *et al.* (1977). It is sufficient to say that OD is a planned intervention by external change agents/OD consultants, using behavioural science knowledge to help an organisation to diagnose its organisational processes and purposes and develop a plan through which all members of the organisation can themselves, modify these processes and purposes in such a way that they can sustain the modification processes in a changing environment. OD then, aims to develop a self-renewing, self-correcting school. A school that is responsive and, more importantly, adaptive to the need for desirable change. A school that is capable and willing to set its own goals and make full use of the interests and expertise of staff. A school that effectively implements participatively made decisions and continually evaluates its success.

An OD project consists of five main stages.

Approach and Commitment

The decision to undertake an OD project lies with the school itself. Members of a school must perceive a need for such a project. Consultants do not make a direct request to be allowed to intervene in the workings of a particular school. This would suggest that they are able to understand the needs of any school without first obtaining relevant data. They would lay themselves open to the charge of presumption and the often repeated cry: 'You don't know my teachers, or my school, or my district'. The first OD project in an Australian school, at Wesley College in Melbourne, was commenced because the school felt a general need to upgrade its communication, problem-solving and decision-making processes; and, more particularly, wanted to adopt a flexible decision-making style that would enable it to cope with the continually changing world outside its gates.

Normally a school's principal initiates an OD project. However, consistent with the assumption that widespread participation in decision-making improves an organisation's ability to modify its own structures and processes in a changing environment, the commitment of all project participants is essential. If this commitment is assured from the beginning the project is well on the way to success.

Clear communication, openness and trust are essential at all stages of an OD project, but particularly so during the first stage. For the principal who feels that OD holds potential benefits, the key issue is not how to initiate the process, nor whom to involve, but how real is the school's commitment to this direction? OD is not a game to be played with the school staff at the whim of the powers that be. At stake are sensitive and basic issues of trust and openness between administrators and teachers, the flow of internal school communications, role definitions and interrelationships, and the distribution of power. A false OD effort could be more harmful to the school than maintaining the status quo.

Data Gathering

At the second stage of an OD project the expertise of the consultants is called upon. They gather data concerning organisational processes, distribute questionnaires, interview all members of the school, and investigate decision-making processes, goal-setting activities, communication networks, problem-solving devices, and methods of resolving conflict. Questionnaires, such as the Criteria for a Good School and Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire are used, but as diagnostic rather than research tools. Results are usually tabulated according to role groups within the school (principal, deputies, teachers, and so on) and fed back in an easy-to-understand form during the workshop stage of the project.

Feedback

On the basis of the data gathered in stage two, the consultants, in conjunction with the members of the organisation, diagnose organisational problems and identify areas in need of improvement. A joint plan of action is agreed to by all involved, and goals are set for organisational training.

Involving all members of the organisation in every phase of a project, particularly the feedback stage, is consistent with the assumption that decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities should be located as close to the work face as possible. This increases self-direction by people within the organisation.

Workshop

The training program workshop, which lasts four to five days, is linked to the data gathering and feedback sessions. Membership of the groups formed within the workshop changes according to the activity. Rank, status and prestige of an individual are of minor importance for participating in activities because an objective of OD is to supplement authority identified with role or status with the authority of knowledge and competence.

The first part of a workshop illustrates the importance of clear communication and collaborative behaviour. Participants become aware of organisational processes, and thus begin to develop organisational skills.

Structured Experiences such as NASA's 'Stranded on the Moon' (Watson *et al.* 1981) are used to develop communication, decision-making and problem-solving skills.

Each Structured Experience is followed by discussion of what was learned during the session (all experiences have at least one member of the school acting as a process observer) and how this can be applied to the school's functioning. The learning of these skills is vital for success in the latter part of the workshop and project. It is clear from this emphasis on skill development that OD does not assume that simply placing people together will result in more effective problem-solving.

Structured Experiences in the early part of the workshop have many advantages. Apart from demonstrating that competence for a specific task is not necessarily related to position within a school, they help participants become aware of the need for skills and organisational processes. Because the game-like experiences are different from the day-to-day work of a school, they encourage participants to become involved irrespective of previously established school norms. They make learning-by-doing enjoyable and allow staff to get to know each other better.

The newly gained familiarity with organisational processes, together with information gathered from the school in the data gathering stage (at about day three of the workshop questionnaire results are fed back to the participants) determine the type of activities taking place in the latter part of the training workshop. These activities may include the identification of common problems and conflicts, and the planning of activities and goals to overcome these problems and conflicts. Thus the workshop not only enlarges awareness and develops skills, but encourages participants to apply this awareness and these skills to the real life problems of a school.

Follow-up and Evaluation

OD is a means to an end – to create an organisation that is both adaptable and healthy. During the follow-up evaluation phase of a project a great deal of short-term, on-going and long-term data needs to be collected, analysed and fed back to the school. This requires the involvement of both members of the school staff and the consultants in the use of questionnaires, interviews, observation and dossier/diary keeping. Answers are sought to questions such as:

- Are the skills that were acquired during the training session in everyday use?
- Has action been taken on the problems that were identified?
- If a problem-solving procedure has been found inadequate, have the members of the school developed another approach?

There is increasing support both here in Australia and overseas for the value of OD in promoting awareness of and skill development in group and organisational processes. But there is also increasing support for the position that this will only occur if OD is done right.

The key words in an understanding of effective OD are 'organisation' and 'self-renewal'. What is also important is its long-term character. Many think, for example, that the Workshop stage of an OD project (where the school staff come together for a number of days) constitutes OD. This is not so. Although the Workshop is a most important part and perhaps the most obvious for participants, there is the long, slow and deliberate sequence of stages described above that occur both before and after the Workshop that are all equally important and must be employed in a sequential, relational and balanced way.

Conclusions from North American (Fullan *et al.* 1978) studies are consistent with Australian material (Mulford 1982) in stressing the importance of all of the following factors for successful OD. The parallels between these indicators of what is meant for OD to be 'done right' and similar characteristics of effective inservice/staff development should be readily apparent:

- A primary focus on self-study of structures and educational tasks by the organisation (school) and the individual in it (as opposed to a personal development or skill training for individuals).
- Have or develop commitment (reflected in such things as support and active involvement of top management and use of the organisation's own resources, particularly time and money – while time costs are considerable, successful OD projects do not require large budgets).
- Careful, early planning by an internal steering committee and the identification, training and increased use of members of the school staff to take over the consultant's process facilitating role.
- Sustained efforts which need to be measured in years, not hours, days or weeks.
- Careful, successful and sequential passage through each of five stages of an OD project, that is, approach and commitment, data gathering, feedback, workshop and follow-up and evaluation.
- Incorporation of OD strategies which become a regular way of doing business, an integral part of the self-renewing effort in a school, rather than something apart or just added on.
- Use of consultants who are prepared to develop schools they work with so that staffs become independent of their assistance.

So far in this chapter I have argued that the most relevant and successful inservice within education requires a greater attention to the role of implementation and that a most important aspect of effective implementation is the facilitation of collaborative effort by those currently in schools. I then outlined one proven approach for achieving this collaborative effort – OD. It remains now to reinforce some of the issues that need to be considered in effectively carrying out this proven approach to inservice education, particularly from my experience in the role of an outside consultant.

Some Issues for Consideration in Satisfying the Need Through OD

My own work with schools in Australia has led me to identify an 'Octet of Dilemmas' facing OD consultants (Mulford 1979). These dilemmas centre around an obscure definition; on whether emphasis should be given to the total organisation or one or more of its departments; the obstacle to development of an organisation not being 'OD ready'; on an over-dependence on 'experts'; the danger of an 'Omphalos Dynasty' being established with a resultant over-estimation of OD's effectiveness; possible difficulties in obtaining a demand for OD that is consistent with 'the OD way of doing things'; the running of the Omnibus of Development or Workshop stage of an OD project; and the difficulties in evaluating whether OD provides obvious deliverance from current school problems. Using some of this material as a base, it is intended to complete the chapter with a more detailed discussion of some of the issues that need to be considered in effectively carrying out the role of a facilitator of collaborative effort through OD.

Organisation or Department?

Taking individual teachers out of schools and into courses run by consultants is very much like taking out one piece of a jigsaw (school organisation), changing its shape and then finding it will not fit when you try to put it back. Not only will the piece not fit but it then has to suffer the anguish and frustration of being 'knocked' back into its original shape (the 'lopping the tall poppy' syndrome) so as to fit in with the total jigsaw. This suggests that for effective change the total school (all the pieces of the jigsaw) needs to be involved. But is this really so? Can approaches be effective with individuals, a department or any other grouping (*e.g.* senior staff) within a school?

My experiences plus a body of research evidence which has accumulated over the past decade all point toward a very clear message: school improvement cannot be accomplished without attention to the fabric of the school's culture and organisation. In other words, total jigsaw involvement needs to be our ultimate goal. Individual, departmental or group approaches can serve as precursors but not substitutes for organisational development. (Who goes to make up the jigsaw, or organisation, poses an interesting question in itself.)

Goodlad's (1983a) massive study of thirty-eight Principals, 1350 teachers, 8624 parents and 17,163 students in US schools provides a recent example of this body of research. He writes:

> I believe that we must build into each school a continuing attention to instruction and the curriculum. *This does not occur when teachers [and administrators] are drawn out of schools as individuals to engage willy-nilly in workshops and courses and are then returned to the isolation of their classrooms and a school culture* where how and what one teaches are not matters for peer group analysis, discussion, and improvement. Teaching

> must be taken out of its cloak of privacy and autonomy to become the business of the entire school and its staff.
>
> How is this to be done? As yet, we do not know – but we know enough to make some educated guesses. My experience with our League of Schools project (1966-72) convinces me that, with support and encouragement, school staffs will begin to address the sensitive problems of their own teaching when they become both comfortable with one another and confident in their ability to affect the quality of life in their own schools. These conditions emerge out of the processes of dialogue, decision-making, action, and evaluation . . . *Initiating and nurturing such processes will do more in the long run to improve the quality of the educational program than will a direct attack on teaching,* especially in schools where the ecosystem is already malfunctioning. (Goodlad 1983b, 557, emphasis added)

Obtaining a Demand

The seeds of successful consultation with education systems are planted during the introductory phase of a project (the approach and gaining of commitment). The consultant must know and clearly communicate their values to a school. It will be easy for them to take 'cheap shots' at the school's norms and processes and equally easy for them to be seen as an administration spy, pawn or dupe. Yet, to be effective, they cannot allow this to happen.

There is a dilemma here: on the one hand, the consultant must not be seen as the lackey of one person or group yet, on the other hand, it is equally important, particularly in a setting with a history of necessary centralised decision-making such as that found in many Australian school systems, that early support be gained from the principal.

Principal support may be difficult not only to obtain but also to sustain when he or she comes to realise the direction of change required of them under OD. As Morgan *et al.* (1973) have succinctly stated:

> Under OD the formal leader changes the basis of his authority from that of power, patronage and sponsorship legitimised by position, to one of authority based on skill in facilitating members' participation and in energising members to solve problems and resolve conflict. (p53)

Fullan (in Morgan *et al.* 1973, 45-6) underscores the importance of this change to a facilitative mode in the top level occurring during the Workshop stage of an OD project. If there is no change, then subordinates may find themselves at great disadvantage:

> Skills promoted OD . . . heavily favour the most literate and articulate members of the organisation . . . verbal facility is also probably related to the authority of the school . . . those lower in the hierarchy may find themselves at a disadvantage in pursuing their own interests . . .

There is also a possible dilemma between the method of obtaining the commitment of staff to consultations such as OD and the values of OD itself. Fullan (Morgan *et al.* 1973, 45) highlights this dilemma:

> . . . it is problematic whether the conditions under which people asked to indicate acceptance are conducive to 'free' acceptance. For example, since OD has been initially endorsed by authority figures and introduced by outside OD 'experts' it is at least questionable whether these structured conditions allow for two-way communication from subordinates about their concerns.

How shall clients be induced to step across into the new non-manipulative world of more open communication represented by OD without manipulating the client? The dilemma for the consultant is that he may feel that there are many schools which could benefit from OD, yet they cannot, if they are consistent with the values of OD, impose themselves upon the schools. They can make their work known via conferences and articles, but initiation of an OD project lies with the school itself.

Mulford *et al.* (1977, 221) have tried to recognise this dilemma:

> Teacher and support staff commitment at Wesley [College in Melbourne] was also not well handled, and was, in fact, antithetical to many of the values implicit in OD. A formal staff meeting involving an explanation of OD, question answering and then voting does not result in a consensus type of commitment. Preferable is the method (employed at Pearce [Primary School in the ACT]) where a consultant visits the school informally on a number of occasions prior to speaking briefly at a staff meeting and then remaining at the school for at least one full day for informal individual or small group explanations and discussions. Commitment is made at a later staff meeting not attended by the consultant. It may even be desirable to extend the gaining of commitment stage over one or two months so that all participants are clear on what will be involved in an OD project.

Over-Dependence

There are schools that hold unrealistic expectations for the consultants they employ. Consultations are looked on by some as a panacea or cure-all, and unfortunately, there will be consultants who will pander to these demands. Good consultation, that is, consultation that focuses on implementation and developing collaborative effort among a school's staff, is hard work and takes time. Quick, flash interventions are not going to induce major, permanent changes and will often be detrimental to an education system. Wyant (1974) for example, after studying a large number of schools that had received various amounts of OD consultations, found that those receiving less than twenty-four hours over a year actually declined in their communication adequacy.

Good consultants need to constantly remind their clients that they had not walked on water in recent times. Yet in my experience even where this happens client expectations can remain too high. Unrealistic expectations usually stem from a belief that good consultation is a product when, as this chapter has argued, it first needs to be a process. An assumption is that all we need to know is more and more facts (usually from being told by 'experts') when what is needed is knowledge of values. The latter requires the involvement and intervention of the participants themselves. The consultant's job is to facilitate this interaction. What the school decides to do is its business.

The critical question for consultants is how can outside resources and stimulation be provided which will encourage and enable teachers to try something different, to do it on their own? The answer suggested in this chapter is to use an approach such as OD to help schools help themselves; help them to realise that their success was due to their own efforts and abilities and not to outside expertise.

Good consultation with education systems attempts to establish self-renewing organisation. Dependence on consultants is the opposite of this aim. In fact, it is in this area that one could express doubts about the usefulness of education systems employing outside consultants who are dependent upon their work with schools for their livelihood. The temptation to prolong dependency on the consultant is strong in this situation, yet, if he or she believes one of the major aims of effective consultation is to promote a self-renewing organisation, then obviously he or she should be working to 'do himself or herself out of a job' at any school as quickly as possible.

This stance poses a dilemma that my own work has yet fully to resolve: to what extent can one continue to be involved in follow-up consultation with school and still be developing a self-renewing organisation? The point at which a course, workshop or consultation becomes self-directed and where additional direction by the consultant would detract from the development process is a very delicate, important, yet little discussed topic.

Over-Confidence

Care must be taken by consultants not to assume that they stand at the central point of the earth and that everything revolves around them when they work with schools. Consultants need to constantly remind not only their clients but also themselves that they have not walked on water in recent times.

Any communication may be complicated by a situation where there is both a power/authority and an epistemological gap between teachers and consultants. It is very time-consuming to clarify the expectations and to establish roles among consultants and teachers because they do not have the same position in the system. This social or professional perception is not changed simply by moving into a school and meeting the staff.

Eraut (1977) elaborates on the little researched but obviously important epistemological gap in the following way:

> Because the teacher has to act, his language has to contain a strong prescriptive element which those who do not have to teach willingly avoid. Moreover he has to particularise his thought and action, whereas those outside the school are expected to generalise. He also has to learn to talk about his actions in a way that protects himself from blame and maximises his autonomy. His epistemological world is bound to be different from that of the consultant and this can be a major barrier to communication. Both talk to each other in the way that they have learned to talk and neither will literally mean what he says.

The presence of this epistemological gap may help explain why some teachers involved in inservice courses have a serious backslide into the classical passive role of student and why other evidence has underlined the negative attitude some teachers have to external consultants.

Often this lack of understanding arises from a consultant's qualities involving presumption and arrogance which results in the consultant 'doing his or her own thing', no matter what the circumstances. Coad (1976) provides an example. He writes that among the important reasons for the modest impact of one OD program on satisfaction, group processes, climate, leadership or student achievement in a school he studied was that 'even with six days to build themselves into an OD team, the consultants practised their own strengths (sensitivity training and confrontation, for example) rather than implementing the pre-planned OD workshop design'. (Coad 1976, 13)

It is important to make the point that the most important issue facing those working in inservice education, and particularly those who accept the role argued for in this chapter, is the one relating to the charge of manipulation. One must exercise care with a 'human relations' as opposed to 'human resources' attitude (Miles 1965) on the part of those in the school or school system administration responsible for the initiation of consultation. With such potentially powerful techniques the attitude that they can be used to pressure recalcitrant individuals into conforming with the administration's thinking must be avoided at all costs.

As effective behaviour change can involve manipulation and control and since manipulation of human behaviour inherently violates a fundamental value of freedom of choice, this places the inservice educator in a dilemma. The dilemma cannot be resolved completely. This, however, is no argument for avoiding discussion of the issue and spending a great deal of time ensuring and/or developing a consistency between school and inservice values.

To make the first phases of consultation non-threatening it is necessary to avoid having high powered, high status consultants giving a 'proper' introduction. Similarly, over-use of jargon would limit communication with the client and reinforce dependence on 'expertise'. If the consultant believes in self-renewing organisation then an increasingly low profile is highly desirable.

An 'increasingly low profile' will be difficult to achieve given educators' obsession with experts. It would seem that expertise increases with the distance travelled. A local expert cannot hope to compete with the interstate expert, let alone the almost divine workshop accorded to someone from overseas. If overseas experts are brought in they may not only lack the necessary knowledge of the local education scene, but may also find it extremely difficult to cast off the shackles of the tag 'expert' and adopt the low profile necessary for self-renewing schools.

The technology of good consultation is the proper province of school personnel. Individuals who are now called consultants might better consider themselves to be essentially educators, preparing school personnel to utilise this technology along with other technologies. As indicated in an earlier section, their major job is to work themselves out of a job by educating school staffs in processes involving collaborative effort.

'Working oneself out of a job' in any particular school certainly poses a difficult dilemma not only for consultants dependent on projects such as OD for their livelihood, but also for 'internal' consultants (*e.g.* curriculum consultants, regional personnel or other members of education systems). Can a curriculum consultant be involved in an OD project, that is, emphasising processes and working to 'do themselves out of a job', and still consult in content (*e.g.* Maths, English, Social Sciences, etc)? Can regional office personnel be involved when they may also have an assessment function (of teachers or curricula) as part of their role? It is the argument of this chapter that as the first step in effective consultation these roles are mutually exclusive.

In-School Facilitator Training

It is vital for effective consultation that school facilitators emerge who can take over from the external consultant before the end of their attachment. The sooner this transference of skills occurs the more successful the consultation. Yet there is a possible dilemma here related to the point at which the training of in-school facilitators should commence.

Some argue that in-school facilitators should be trained prior to the workshop or consultation. This position does not make sense. Apart from the need to select in-school facilitators as a result of judging their performance during the consultation there is the temptation to pre-selecting those who have had previous OD or similar type inservice experiences. This previous training and experience can be with process techniques, but is usually not OD as described in this chapter. For example, discussing the process and implications of a consensus decision-making structured experience with a group of principals from twelve different schools is vastly different to the same discussion with twelve of a principal's own staff.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has commenced with a belief that effective inservice needs to focus on current teachers or staff development and that for more successful staff development in schools there is a need to give greater emphasis to implementation. It was argued that the most important aspect of effective implementation is first obtaining effective collaboration among teachers (and between teachers and the community). In other words, awareness of, and skill development in, group and organisation processes must be a first step in any effective inservice or change.

Organisational Development (OD), if 'done right' was suggested as a proven approach to achieving these necessary prerequisite process skills.

OD was defined and a brief description given of the five main stages of an OD project (approach and commitment, data gathering, feedback, workshop, and follow-up and evaluation). Indicators of what it means for OD to be 'done right' were then listed, indicators such as an emphasis on the organisational, long-term and self-renewal, the importance of commitment and development of within school facilitators, and the necessary for using consultants who are prepared to develop schools so that staff quickly become independent of their assistance.

Discussion of the stages of an OD project and listing of the indicators of what it means for OD to be 'done right' made it clear that there were many issues and dilemmas that need to be considered in effectively carrying out this proven approach to inservice education. Five of these issues were isolated for reinforcement: the need to aim toward greater emphasis on the total organisation rather than department, group or especially individual; the need to obtain and maintain a demand for OD that is consistent with the non-manipulative, collaborative value system underpinning the approach; the risk of schools being overly-dependent on and having unrealistic expectations for OD and yet the need for the consultants to be working themselves out of a job at any school as quickly as possible; the risk of over-confidence on the part of consultants regarding the extent and type of impact they have on schools; and the need for the identification and training of in-school facilitators to occur during an OD project.

Perhaps those working with schools would do well to remember the words of a wise Chinese gentleman who in 640 BC wrote the following about the most effective inservice educators (leaders):

> As for the best leaders,
>   people do not notice their existence.
> The next best,
>   the people honour and praise.
> The next,
>   the people fear;
> and the next
>   the people hate.
> When the best leader's work is done,
>   the people say we did it ourselves.

References

Coad, R. (1976) *The Effects of an Organisation Development Program on Satisfaction, Group Process, Climate, Leadership and Student Achievement.* ERIC ED 120 937.

Dillon-Peterson, B. (1981) (Ed.) *Staff Development and Organization Development.* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Alexandria, Va.

Eraut, M. (1977) Some Perspectives on Consultancy in In-Service Education. *British Journal of In-Service Education,* 4 (1/2), 99.

Fullan, M., Miles, M. and Taylor, G. (1978) *OD in Schools: The State of the Art.* Final Reports to National Institute of Education, Contract Nos. 400-77-0051, 0052.

Goodlad, J. (1983a) *A Place Called School.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Goodlad, J. (1983b) A Study of Schooling: Some Implications for School Improvement, *Phi Delta Kappan,* 64 (8), 552-558.

Karmel, P. *et al.* (1985) *Quality of Education in Australia:* Report of the Review Committee. AGPS, Canberra.

Miles, R. (1965) Human Relations or Human Resources. *Harvard Business Review.* Summer: 340-47.

Morgan, C. *et al.* (1973) *Organisation Development (OD): The Case of Sheldon High School.* The Open University Press.

Mulford, W. (1979) Organisation Development in Schools: An Octet of Dilemmas. *Educational Change and Development,* 1 (3), 13-25.

Mulford, W. (1982) Consultation with Education Systems Is About the Facilitation of Co-ordinated Effort. In H. Gray (ed.) *The Management of Educational Institutions.* The Falmer Press, London.

Mulford, W., Conabere, A. and **Keller, J.** (1977) Organisation Development in Schools: Early Data on the Australian Experience. *Journal of Educational Administration,* 15 (2), 210-37.

Watson, H., Vallee, J. and **Mulford, W.** (1981) *Structured Experiences and Group Development.* Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Wyant, S. (1974) The Effects of OD Training on Communication in Elementary Schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon.

THEME 3: THE SYSTEM

Introduction Theme 3
Professional Development: The System
W.D. Neal

Personnel Policies in Modern Organisations
W.G. Walker

Principles for Planning
Professional Development
John Docker

Policies for Professional Development:
The 1984 National Review of Teacher Education
Lawrence Ingvarson and Frank Coulter

Support Services
G.F. Berkeley

Some Considerations for the Future
R.W. Rawlinson and M. Guild-Wilson

Summary and Implications
W.D. Neal

INTRODUCTION: THEME 3
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE SYSTEM

W.D. Neal

The term 'system' as used in this part, refers to groups of schools held together by legislative and administrative bonds or grouped together on the basis of common interest. The Education Department in states and territories are the most obvious examples where in each case a government is the employing authority. Catholic Education systems as they have developed around Australia are indistinguishable as systems in the sense intended here. Groupings of independent schools operate on a much looser basis - mainly on common interests, but the tendency to work together is increasing. However, there is a multiplicity of employers. Some of the responsibilities for professional development outlined for the system in this part, fall squarely on employing authorities and in this respect independent School Boards may have difficulties. However there has been a trend in recent years for State and Territory authorities to extend some professional development opportunities to all teachers, government and non-government. This is a move which has been developed further in the last ten years by Commonwealth Government policies and support. In one sense therefore there is a 'system' of schools and teachers in each State and Territory which encompasses all. It is surely in the best interests of education to develop such a concept even further.

Modern Personnel Management

Modern organisations and businesses (analogous to 'systems') have devoted increasing resources to the welfare and development of their personnel. Their concerns are with the care and interests of their employees as people and also with the long-term health of the business enterprise. Despite the increasing impact of technology, thoughtful organisations know that their long-term success will still depend on people. Hence there has been a growth in personnel services and in trained administrators to work in them. The study of personnel administration has grown considerably and courses are now available in many tertiary institutions as well as in other organisations. Some are set up by the firms themselves both within their organisations as well as cooperatively.

Education systems can benefit from a study of modern business practices and philosophy. In the first instance there could be a much more positive and active commitment to the personal welfare and professional development of every teacher and other personnel also. This is not to say that educational administrators are not sympathetic to teachers and are not interested in promoting growth. It is true, however, that the resources presently devoted to personnel matters are meagre and do not promote the kind of services now common in other businesses.

The personnel administrative services in industry offer other activities that might be studied with advantage. For example they develop and use comprehensive personnel records which contribute among other things, to planning personal career patterns. They have considerable success with training programs through the planning of objectives, specific learning activities, use of technology and media and follow-up. Finally many of them appear to be able to discover potential and to provide appropriate learning experiences for future managers.

Perhaps one of the most important features of successful personnel development programs is that they are based on an understanding of how adults learn, what motivates them, what is likely to encourage change in behaviour and what will give satisfaction. This involves a knowledge of the psychology of adult learning and a mastery of group techniques and manipulation. It requires also very careful attention to planning learning experiences - as much attention as it is hoped is given to planning learning experiences for children in schools.

How Educational Systems Differ

Educational systems have some characteristics which make them different from organisations which are commercial enterprises. It is appropriate to indicate some of these characteristics in order to keep the challenge of professional development in proper perspective.

1. Educational systems have a complex and variable set of goals and objectives. They are agreed upon only at the most general level. Hence they do not represent the driving force which emerges from clearly stated and accepted objectives which can be seen in specific end-product terms.
2. There are many parts to an educational system - government, administration, schools, pupils, teachers, parents and public. It would be an impossible and undesirable expectation that all would always agree.
3. The mechanisms of control throughout a system are loose, both by design and by the nature of education and the necessary semi-autonomy of schools and classrooms. Supervisory lines are loose and the system depends on a mixture of faith and professionalism for it to work. In the long run this has to be so but it does make for very blurred notions of accountability.

Other characteristics could be elaborated but enough has been said to indicate that personnel development policies should not be transferred uncritically from even the most successful business enterprises. Yet much can be learned from other organisations and perhaps a starting point is to realise that people administering and implementing personnel policies need special and appropriate training. They are not jobs which can be filled by *ad hoc* selection or by using a person who happens to be available in administration or on the school staff.

What Role for the System

It was stated above that given the characteristics of educational systems, and, of course, the nature of teaching and administering within them, tremendous emphasis is placed on the professionalism and competence of teachers. The responsibility for maintaining and developing competence rests on the individual. In this respect teaching is no different from other professions. The self-motivating professional will seek out opportunities for improvement and much will flow from critical self-appraisal and a receptiveness to new ideas from many sources.

Much help will be, or should be, available from the school in which the teacher works. Evidence about effective professional development experiences in changing classroom teacher behaviour emphasises the importance of school based activities, cooperative planning, group work and supportive follow-up in the classroom.

Given these two important principles, that is, the personal responsibility of the teacher and the importance of many professional development activities being school based, the administration of educational systems have to work out what they can do most effectively to support these principles but also to provide the other parts of a comprehensive and clearly articulated personnel management program.

A Comprehensive Personnel Policy

The features of a fully developed personnel policy for a modern educational system are set out below. The adoption of policies similar to the ones noted should enable a system to move forward in a systematic manner even if it takes time to provide and develop the resources.

1. The system should have a philosophy and commitment to caring about what happens to teachers as individuals and professionals. This would imply such activities as:
   - a record system which documents the professional development of each teacher;
   - a requirement that *all* teachers participate in professional development;
   - a view of a teacher's career as a continuum from pre-service through induction to inservice and various stages of development along the way;
   - individual counselling on possible career paths and the commitment to assistance in developing new skills as required; and

- an acceptance of the view that a weak teacher or a tired teacher often results from the failure of the system and that early diagnosis might lead to successful rehabilitation.

The development of this kind of philosophy does not imply that the system has a 'Big Brother' role. Within such a framework the roles of the individual, the school and regional offices would be delineated.

2. A system should develop a conceptual framework which would provide rigour and accountability for its personnel programs. The features of such a framework would include:
   - the establishment of goals and objectives for programs;
   - the specification of the responsibilities of various parts, *i.e.* individuals, schools, administration, tertiary institutions and so on;
   - the identification of likely career patterns with key points of transition and the specification of required new skills and performance levels;
   - the spelling out of criteria and standards by which to evaluate various activities within the personnel program.
3. One obvious requirement but one worth repeating is that teachers will perform best under conditions of service that are professional. They do not expect to have everything their own way. However they do expect classroom activities that are reasonable, good human relations with their colleagues and their leaders, continuity and some stability in curricula and respect from politicians and the public for their efforts. Recent developments in the Australian states and territories through rapid unvalidated curriculum changes and capricious organisational upheavals have not built up the confidence and professional zeal of teachers.
4. The implementation of personnel programs and in particular of professional development should have operational guidelines that would include:
   - the designation of appropriate activities to achieve various objectives;
   - a system-wide program to anticipate priorities and needs;
   - specific programs for new skills such as those involved in the principalship;
   - the provision of trained personnel to lend professional development activities in school and in the system;
   - guidelines and where appropriate specific assistance for formal study;
   - technical and consultative services contributing to professional development, including an information service accessible throughout the system;
   - systematic procedures for evaluation and feedback.

5. Teachers participate in many activities supplementary to their teaching duties, for example, curriculum development counselling, evaluation projects and other committee type work. Many of these do contribute to professional development but perhaps more could be made of such opportunities to obtain further benefit.
6. A system policy would give attention to the provision of resources on a consistent basis. It is not satisfactory to rely on spasmodic handouts from the Commonwealth Government to supplement meagre resources from the system's funds. The quality of professional performance is crucial to the quality of education and the provision of resources to improve teachers in action must surely have a high priority. If schools are the centres of certain types of inservice activities then resources such as trained leaders, support materials, information and funds should be obvious provisions. The same logic applies to all sections of personnel services. Again it is possible to set tangents for attainment and move to achieve those tangents when possible.

Further Development of the Theme

This chapter has given an introduction and an overview to the theme of professional development as it concerns educational systems. The contributions to this theme take up selected aspects of this topic and discuss them in some detail. In some cases the contributors take up more general aspects of professional development and thus have added further dimensions to the discussion.

As a guide to development of the theme the following framework was established:

Personnel Policies of Modern Organisations

- Responsibilities of organisation.
- Principles related to professional development.
- The needs of an educational system (promotion, administrative personnel, relating to the community).
- Special training for people in staff development activities.
- Evaluation policies and professional development.

Principles for Planning Professional Development

- Principles of adult learning and program planning.
- Principles of group dynamics and social interaction.
- Strategies for teaching/learning (audiovisual, computer, satellite, other technology).

Existing In-Service Education Provisions

- Commonwealth support.
- State systems.

- Independent schools.
- Tertiary institutions and professional associations.
- Selected overseas patterns.

Support Services

- Curriculum and research services (role, professional development opportunities).
- Teacher centres.
- Public understanding (as affecting school roles and teaching effectiveness).

Patterns for Future Development

- Principles and patterns arising from consideration of adult learning, behaviour modification, group interaction.
- Future staffing patterns.
- Inter-school cooperatives.
- Roles of Commonwealth and States.
- Roles of tertiary institutions and professional associations.

Summary Statement

- Implications, priorities, financial considerations, maximising return.

PERSONNEL POLICIES IN MODERN ORGANISATIONS

William G. Walker

> Staid, conservative and non-personnel procedures are likely to contribute to staid, conservative and non-creative educational systems. (Heald and Moore 1968)

Throughout Australia and much of the world beyond there is a clear and urgent demand for change in educational structures. At the UNESCO Workshop on *Managing Structural Change in Education* held at the Australian Administrative Staff College in 1982 there was strong agreement among senior educators from Asian and Pacific nations that planning for structural change was, like all educational endeavours, essentially a *human* exercise. As Harman (1973, 72) editor of the report which appeared following the conference put it, 'Any detailed plan for structural change should include strategies for implementation, evaluation and training of personnel'.

In a keynote paper on change strategies prepared for the workshop Beare and Millikan (1983, 5-19) went to some pains to draw attention to Leavitt's four key dimensions of a complex organisation which must be grappled with if change is to ensue, *i.e.* task, structure, technology and people. The implications for personnel policies in educational organisations were only too obvious to those attending.

It is axiomatic that since a school system is a *system* there is no avoiding the necessity of stability, order and organisation. Any formal human system, educational or otherwise, must recruit, select and train personnel, develop salary and employment policies, assign jobs, orient and induct staff and, inevitably, develop office systems and records. Moreover, there is no avoiding responsibility for the much more demanding tasks of encouraging motivation and of maintaining morale.

In a complex educational institution the term 'personnel' might include in addition to teachers and paraprofessionals, clerical staff, gardeners, custodians, cleaners, cooks, waitresses and many others. In a large independent school a half dozen trade unions might be represented. Moreover, in the vast centralised public education systems of Australia senior administrators are known to lead some of the most sophisticated and complex educational environments in the world.

It is clearly not the task of this brief paper to concern itself with the minutiae of the personnel administrator's role. It is, however, essential that it spell out the key goals of that administrator. These might be stated as:

1. To recruit and select competent teaching and non-teaching staff and to employ such staff in terms of established salary scales and conditions.

2. To provide an environment in which the employee participates to his or her maximum ability in the interests of the students enrolled in the system.
3. To ensure the professional growth of each employee.

(Moehlman 1951, 384)

It takes little effort to see that each of these personnel tasks is in itself complex, politically sensitive and professionally demanding – and that an adequate discussion of each would call for a text book of its own.

The Organisational Animal

If there is one thing that we have learnt from nearly a century of research and systematically observed practice in management it is that apparently simple solutions rarely work in complex organisational settings. One useful means of looking at the complex organisation 'school' or 'school system' is through the eyes of a physiologist or scientist of related interests.

In one of the classic descriptions of the living organism 'school' the geneticist Schwab (1964, 54-5) wrote:

> In brief, as an object of research, a school as an administered entity is an animal, a stochastic series of an especially complicated kind. Each given moment of its tenure is in large part the consequence of previous moments of that tenure; each given moment may be filled by a vast number of alternative actions and inactions, each of which will modify in a different way the character of the next moment. If, for simplicity's sake we freeze the flight of time's arrow, we are still faced with the same high order of complexity that faces the physiologist who attempts to study the complex interaction of parts which constitute a living organism in a relatively steady state.

Following the animal analogy it is easy to see that organisations are born, proceed through infancy and adolescence to maturity, grow to old age and ultimately die. Furthermore, they marry, have offspring, suffer loss and are subject to pathologies. The organisation chart might be seen as their backbone and the formal and informal communication nets as their sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. They have intelligence, choose among alternatives and depend mightily upon communication for their survival. Their bloodstream consists of people. Such organisms survive and flourish only to the extent that they are open to their environments. Where dynamic interaction with their environments ceases or is badly blocked, they die. The awareness of this should lead us to approach the animal 'school' with caution and to develop respect for those who constitute its bloodstream.

To re-state the obvious: there are two key dimensions in the analysis of an institutional animal: structure and people. Without these two key dimensions there is no organisation. *Ipso facto,* both elements are crucial in the make-up of the organisation. Structure – its size, shape and complexity – influences profoundly the ways in which people carry out their organisational tasks. (Indeed, as we shall see, when structure is inadequate to meet human needs it is bypassed, as often occurs in bureaucratic frameworks). Structure is merely the skeleton: it is people who flow through the brain, heart and muscles. It follows, therefore, that the health of the animal is largely a function of the health of its participants. In common managerial terms the organisation is as good as the personnel who work in it.

Any organisation worth its salt is deeply concerned with the health of its members. Indeed, this concern is unavoidable when one is seriously interested in organisational effectiveness and efficiency, as is reflected in the plethora of research in the area of organisational climate which, following Halpin and Croft (1963), has appeared in Australia and elsewhere in recent decades.

The Personnel Function

Perceptive managers and leaders have always recognised the importance of the people factor in moving to the achievement of organisational goals (Walker 1981). Caesar was as concerned about the morale of his men as was Slim two thousand years on. Niccolo Machiavelli, in 1532, recognised the significance of loyalty as clearly as did Peter Board (Walker 1957) four hundred years later.

Modern management theory, too, has long emphasised the crucial role of the person in organisational achievement, however defined. As early as the 1900s, the American Taylor (1947) saw the importance of motivating workers, while Fayol (1949) in France emphasised the significance of manager-worker relationships. A little later Mary Parker Follett (Metcalf and Urwick 1957) described the importance of conflict in enterprises and later again Elton Mayo (1946) took the Copernican step, following his researches, of identifying the power of the group in influencing productivity. As the century progressed, the importance of the 'people factor' was more and more evident, with contributions from research by Maslow (1954), Argyris (1962) and Presthus (1962), to name but a few, being widely accepted. From this rapidly growing mass of theories, principles, assumptions and myths grew that modern organisational function known as personnel.

Indeed, the need for the development and support of personnel has now been spelt out not only in ubiquitous written personnel policies but, *mirabile dictu,* in the establishment of personnel departments. In spite of this contemporary recognition however, the present author notes with chagrin that one major collection of writings to which he contributed, *Designing a New Education Authority* (Walker 1973a, 212-32) has no chapter specifically on the topic.

It is sometimes claimed with justification that in the early days of personnel departments the officers appointed were too often not capable of doing a line job satisfactorily and thus were accused of being assisted to do a 'lateral arabesque'. In the past decade or two, however, there has developed a new awareness of the role of personnel officer, which has resulted in the appointment of better qualified, more widely experienced and more successful practitioners to this position (Walker 1973b, 27-9).

In educational organisations the role of the personnel department is, as we have implied, almost invariably defined in terms of:

- maintaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers for the schools
- selecting, placing and promoting teachers
- exercising evaluating, supervising and certificatory control over schools and teachers
- the professional development of teachers

(Knezevich 1975, 441-50)

Of course, each of these functions can be broken down into a number of subfunctions. For example, included in the first is the relatively new function of assuring equality opportunity, while the second might include negotiations with teachers' unions and the third the role of school councils in teacher assessment.

It is appropriate at this stage to highlight some issues in personnel administration, if only to draw attention to the range and complexity of the responsible officer's role.

Women in Education

One of the most significant contemporary personnel issues relates to the status of women in educational organisations. It is well known, for example, that the majority of teachers in Australia are women, but that the proportion of male principals and senior administrators is very much greater than that of females.

An important response to this fact is well documented in the report on The Australian College of Education-sponsored conference on 'The Participation of Women in Educational Management in Australia' which was held in Melbourne during 1983. If anyone has doubts about the personnel implications of the issues raised it is only necessary to read any talk given at the conference. The convener (Randell 1983, 2) captured the spirit of the meeting in her introduction,

> The struggle for equality for women will continue, but the Conference has strengthened the conviction that the fight is worthwhile, renewed the faith that significant progress can be made and expanded our national network of women who will continue to provide support and encouragement.

Yet it would be naive to assume that the problems faced by personnel officers stop with questions of the balance of the sexes and of seniority of women. There remains the smouldering issue of educational programs for girls and the supply of teachers and facilities to meet the subsequent changes in educational directions. In the Second Annual Report of the Victorian Commission for Equal Opportunity (1979, 25) the Commissioner identified one problem arising from complaints received as:

> Difficulties and issues involved in providing the technical education for both sexes, the rate of conversion of technical schools to co-education and the facilities required to conform to the Equal Opportunity Act.

The challenges to the personnel officer in this arena are so clear as to make further comment unnecessary.

Industrial Relations

A very visible aspect of personnel administration in the contemporary educational environment is that of industrial relations. The three front page headlines of the January 28, 1985 issues of *Education,* the journal of the New South Wales Teachers' Federation read, 'Total Opposition to New Super Scheme' (rejection of a superannuation scheme introduced by the state government), 'Plan Demanded for Extension of Release Time' (a demand for the extension of release time for infants and primary teachers), and 'Paltry Budget Allocation' (a call for decreased teaching hours in Technical and Further Education institutions). The 24 page journal is largely devoted to salary and conditions of work issues, nearly all falling clearly into the lap of the personnel administrator.

The politicisation of the teaching profession in Australia is very well advanced, as Mitchell showed so convincingly in his *Teachers, Education and Politics* (1975) and as did Harman in his *Politics of Education* (1974). More recently, Hince and Spaull (1984, 85-115) have reviewed the development in Victoria of a new industrial relations agreement to replace what they refer to as the 'inherently defective and increasingly unworkable Teachers' Tribunal'. In an optimistic conclusion they assert that the new system owes its 'great promise' to:

- a clear definition of the need for change
- an integrated approach in planning change
- a consensus proposal arrived at after a long and difficult passage.

While easy to state, none of these functional steps can be seen as anything but a demanding and highly complex task for the personnel administrator.

A related area of considerable concern for personnel managers in the public sector is the establishment of appeals mechanisms. Such procedures, rightly or wrong, are rare in the private sector, including the non-government schools. In a report to the Third Parliamentary Seminar of the Joint Committee on Public Accounts the present author (Walker 1982, 4) pointed to the view of the then Chairman of the Commonwealth Public Service Board, Sir William Cole, that almost significant point of difference affecting personnel administration in the public and private sectors was the presence or absence of a system of appeals. It seems that the considerable autonomy enjoyed by the heads of independent schools with regard to selection, recruitment and promotion of staff helps to explain the marked attraction which such schools have had for the Australian public in recent years.

Assessment of Teachers

A traditional concern of the Australian state education departments has been the evaluation and assessment of teachers. The control of teachers and teaching has historically rested not only with the principal, who has both supervisory and inspection functions, but with the district or general inspector (superintendent, education officer) who was, and in some cases remains, 'the eyes and ears of the Department'.

There is a considerable descriptive and interpretive literature on this question of inspection and the history of its development highlights the gradually changing nature of the teacher as a professional rather than as a technician. It is perhaps worth making the points, however, that teachers and administrators continue, after 150 years of inspection in all its forms, vainly to seek the holy grail in the form of a system which at once motivates the professional teacher, contributes to his or her personal growth and yet protects the rights of the child and meets the expectations of interested members of society.

Little Australian research has been carried out in the area of teacher assessment, but there is much speculative writing about the relationship between centre and periphery and about various forms of 'loose coupling' as Weick (1982, 677-80) referred to it.

Where we have set up personnel divisions, as in the large state and catholic departments of education, we have too often permitted the bureaucratisation of what should clearly be recognised as a flexible and fragile function. Kandel (1938) drew attention to this phenomenon as early as the 1930s, while the present author went to some pains in 1977 to review the comments of numerous observers on this issue. Earlier he often quoted Fred Enns (1965, 81-95) of the University of Alberta:

> . . . learning can best take place in an atmosphere of stimulation, freedom from restrictive influences and in a psychologically supportive climate . . . It therefore becomes one of the functions of administration to counteract the impersonal, demanding, often threatening aspects of the large organization . . . The professional needs to be free to practise his profession.

Education then, flourishes amid vitality, flexibility and stimulation. One of the issues which must concern any thinking observer of personnel management is what Charles Bingham (1981, 88) of the US Department of Transportation refers to as 'overmanagement' – the creation of a managerial overburden, which he claims has reached the point of confusion and complexity where it hampers effective management, public accountability and interferes with the evaluation of performance. These pathologies contribute in part to the growing complexity, time delays and hasseling which burden major management systems, including the personnel system.

He concludes, 'one of the nastier ironies which we federal managers face is the fact that our own managerial systems are frequently as oppressive as the regulations we have imposed on others.'

264

One has hardly to go to the USA to hear a similar *cri de coeur* from contemporary Australian state and federal educational administrators, not to mention the principals of individual Australian schools. Yet it would be inaccurate and unfair to avoid mentioning many other stressors, ranging from the post-industrial ascendance of the microelectronic classroom (Culbertson 1982) to the impact of the liberated spouse (Walker 1983). But therein lies a whole new chapter.

The New Personnel Manager

The traditional view of the personnel department has tended to be one of an unexciting, service-oriented, record-keeping, status quo-seeking area. The contemporary view is quite different, as the issues referred to above clearly imply. The growth of professionalism and politicisation in large part has moved the personnel function quickly from a reactive to a pro-active stance. As Heald and Moore (1968, 182) put it,

> Personnel decisions are the most potent decisions a systems executive can make if either the direction or the rate of change is to be altered. Changes in the systems of human component are stimulated most by adding new components, changing the behaviour of retained components or through the rearrangement of the manner in which component interaction is accomplished. If additions, changes and rearrangements are stimuli to systematic alteration, then the skill of the executive officer will be measured largely through his capacity to get appropriate organisational responses as end products of his personnel decisions.

The literature of management is full of pointed reminders about the need for dynamic personnel procedures. Drucker (1980, 121) for example, urges businessmen to change the personnel policies of their enterprises:

> It makes little sense to subject all employees to training programs, to personnel policies and to supervision designed for one group of employees, and in particular designed, as so many of the policies are, for yesterday's typical entrant into the labour force – the fifteen or sixteen-year-old without any experience. More and more we will need to have personnel policies that fit the person rather than bureaucratic convenience or tradition.

Again, Alice Sargent (1981, 78-9) in her iconoclastic *The Androgynous Manager*, points out that contemporary changes in management style are particularly evident in the personnel function where the appropriate departments are working on building relationships with line managers to increase their effectiveness as developers of human resources. She quotes with approbation Yankelovich who has concluded that the values of the new breed of workers indicate a growing focus on psychological wellbeing as well as on economic security.

Byrt and Masters (1980, 147) writing on the Australia of the mid-1970s pointed to the tension which exists between the line manager and the personnel manager with respect to the development of staff. They asserted:

> Ideally, the personnel department should operate so as to provide service, advice and innovation to other departments: it should audit and co-ordinate their activities. However, the ultimate responsibility staffing should remain within the departments.

The authors are pessimistic about the future of the personnel manager. In a later book, *The Human Variable,* Byrt (1980, 151-3) presents a heart-rending case study of Fred Raymond who threw in the towel as personnel manager after only two years with the Speciality Manufacturing Company. *Ichabod! Ichabod!*

There is patently an in-built tension in the relationship between the line manager and the personnel manager. It is still widely accepted in industry, government and education that the professional progress and development of the individual staff member is the prime responsibility of the line manager. It is for this reason that Ordway Tead (1957) argues in his classic, *The Art of Administration,* that the key role of the administrator is to be an *educator,* to prepare thoroughly those who are to succeed him. Putting this in the simplest terms, Tead asserts that administrators and managers work to make themselves redundant.

The thin line between the viewpoint of the line manager and that of the professionally trained organisational developer is only too obvious, but there has only recently developed a powerful appreciation of the need for well educated personnel officers. Yet in education of all places the educated personnel manager is the exception rather than the rule!

Generally, throughout both the public and private sectors of Australia business, manufacturing and commerce, to say nothing of the statutory corporations, government, the armed services and the union movement, there is now a recognition that the personnel functions calls for special insights and skills. While it is still assumed in some quarters that these are best obtained solely through experience in the workplace there is a growing recognition that the activities of personnel officers and their colleagues can be enriched at training programs, offered by a variety of educational institutions. Sadly, in most such institutions in Australia it is the educators who are most noticeable by their absence.

Conclusions

Schools and education systems, like all enterprises, are living animals. As such they are subject to the same pathologies as are other living organisms. The behaviour of educational organisations is a function of those who inhabit them, and since they are systems, are led and inhabited by people who are required to accept defined responsibilities within them. While every administrator or supervisor has a personnel function, so diverse and specialised have modern organisations become that key support staff in the form of personnel officers are now the norm.

Since people are the chief components in enterprises it is essential that they be chosen with care, guided with humanity and led with sensitivity if they are to work cooperatively towards organisational goals. This implies that such functions as selection, recruitment, promotion and assessment be the responsibility of specifically chosen and thoroughly trained professionals and that particular efforts be made to ensure that those who pursue personnel functions in educational institutions rise above the rigid structures which have too often blighted education and its practitioners.

Moreover, the Australian educational community badly needs data which will assist in defining and analysing the role of the personnel administrator. Without such data personnel procedures may well remain the staid, conservative and non-creative phenomena highlighted nearly two decades ago by Heald and Moore.

References

Argyris, C. (1962) *Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness.* Dorsey, Homewood, Ill.

Beare, H. and Millikan, R. (1983) Change Strategies: a Framework for Systematic Discussion and Planning, Chapter 2 in G.S. Harman, *Managing Structural Change in Education in Asia and the Pacific, op. cit.*

Bingham, C. (1981) An Agenda for Improvement, *The Bureaucrat,* 10 (3), Fall.

Byrt, W.J. (1980) *The Human Variable.* McGraw-Hill, Sydney.

Byrt, W.J. and Masters, P.R. (1980) *The Australian Manager.* Sun Books, Melbourne.

Commissioner for Equal Opportunity (1979) *Second Annual Report.* Government Printer, Melbourne.

Culbertson, J.A. (1982) Moving Education and its Administration into the Microelectronic Age. Ohio State University College of Education, Columbus, Ohio. Typescript.

Drucker, P.F. (1980) *Managing in Turbulent Times.* Harper and Row, New York.

Enns, F. (1965) Rating Teacher Effectiveness: The Function of the Principal. *Journal of Educational Administration,* 3.

Fayol, H. (1949) *General and Industrial Management.* Pitman, London.

Halpin, A.W. and Croft, D.B. (1963) *The Organizational Climate of Schools.* Midwest Administration Centre, Chicago.

Harman, G.S. (1974) *The Politics of Education: a Bibliographical Guide.* UQP, St Lucia.

Harman, G.S. (1983) (Ed.) *Managing Structural Change in Education in Asia and the Pacific.* AGPS, Canberra.

Heald, J. and Moore, S.A. (1968) *The Teacher and Administrative Relationships in School Systems.* Macmillan, New York.

Hince, K. and Spaull, A. (1984) The New Industrial Relations System for Victorian State Education: The Process of Change. *Educational Administration Review,* 2 (1).

Kandel, I. (1938) *Types of Administration.* ACER, Melbourne.

Knezevich, S.J. (1975) *Administration of Public Education.* Harper and Row, New York.

Machiavelli, N. (1961) *The Prince.* Penguin, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

MacKay, D.A. (1970) Personnel Organization in School Systems, Chapter 6, in F.D. Oliva and E.L. Koch (Eds.) *Design for the Seventies.* University of Calgary, Calgary.

Maslow, G.H. (1954) *Motivation and Personality.* Harper and Bros., New York.

Mayo, E. (1945) *The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.

Metcalf, H.E. and Urwick, L.F. (1957) *The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett.* Pitman, London.

Mitchell, B. (1975) *Teachers, Education and Politics.* UQP, St Lucia.

Moehlman, A.B. (1951) *Educational Administration.* Houghton Mifflin, Boston.

Presthus, R.V. (1962) *The Organizational Society: An Analysis and a Theory.* Knopf, New York.

Randell, S. (1983) Introduction, in *Changing Focus, the Participation of Women in Educational Management in Australia.* ACE, Melbourne.

Sargent, A.C. (1981) *The Androgynous Manager.* Amacom, New York.

Schwab, J.J. (1964) The Professorship in Educational Administration: Theory - Art - Practice, in D.J. Willower and J. Culbertson (Eds.) *The Professorship in Educational Administration.* UCEA, Columbus, Ohio.

Taylor, F.W. (1951) *Scientific Management.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Tead, O. (1951) *The Art of Administration.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Van Zwoll, J.A. (1964) *School Personnel Administration.* Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York.

Walker, W.G. (1957) *Peter Board: His Contribution to the Development of Education in New South Wales.* ACER, Melbourne.

Walker, W.G. (1973a) Administrative Structures: Centralization or Decentralization, Chapter 10, in G.S. Harman and C. Selby Smith (Eds.) *Designing a New Education Authority.* Australian National University, Canberra.

Walker, W.G. (1973b) Evaluating Training and Development Programmes, *Personnel Management,* 11 (3).

Walker, W.G. (1981) Training and Development: St Augustine Was Right. AITD, Sydney. Typescript.

Walker, W.G. (1982) Report to Meeting of Joint Committee of Public Accounts of the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia *Third Parliamentary Seminar 21 May 1982.* AGPS, Canberra.

Walker, W.G. (1983) Management Sources of Tension and Stress. Headmasters' Conference of the Independent Schools of Australia, Brisbane.

Weick, K.E. (1982) Administering Education in Loosely Coupled Schools. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 63 (10).

PRINCIPLES FOR PLANNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

John Docker

This paper examines some of the principles of planning professional development. It is written in the following sections:

1. the meaning of professional development;
2. the professional development network;
3. the characteristics of successful professional development activities;
4. necessity of obtaining a climate to support staff development;
5. adults as learners;
6. meeting teachers' needs;
7. the negotiation of activities, contents and methodology;
8. the program planning – the RPTIM Model;
9. the influence of technology on teaching and learning;
   and the conclusion.

The author of this paper, together with Dr D. Fisher (Tasmanian Institute of Technology) and Professor P. Hughes (University of Tasmania) conducted an intensive evaluation of professional development activities in Tasmania during 1983-85. This evaluation involved distributing questionnaires to over 1000 teachers to analyse the effects of year-long award bearing inservice education courses and making intensive case studies over a year-long period to examine the nature of current professional development in thirty schools (Docker, Fisher and Hughes 1985).

1. The Meaning of Professional Development

During the two years of the Tasmanian evaluation, there was much debate on the meaning of professional development. As a result of this discussion in all the schools involved in the case studies, and in many other forums, it can be concluded that teachers ascribe a broad meaning to the term 'professional development'. The meaning should embrace personal as well as professional growth. Most teachers perceive these two broad aspects to be closely interrelated.

The statement adopted for this evaluation received considerable support in all schools. It stated that:

> Professional development aims to increase teachers' knowledge of, understanding of, and expertise in their professional work, through activities designed to attain this goal. (Adapted from Morant, 1981)

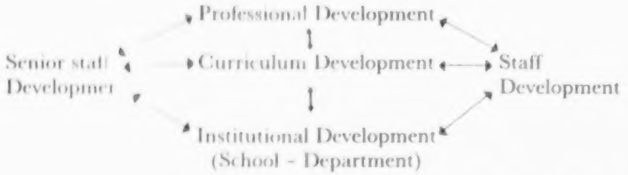
Most teachers believe they have a professional obligation to undertake continual learning. The development of teachers is viewed by most as a lifelong process of learning. If the status of teaching as a profession is to be improved, we must confront the disparity between what we *are* doing and what we *can* do. Teachers and administrators should show determination to expand their knowledge and skills. Such an approach is the only way of meeting the challenges raised by a changing society, technological change, other forces impinging on the curriculum, and of serving the children we teach.

Teachers recognise that professional development is their responsibility. However, while teachers accept responsibility for their own development they generally appreciate assistance, guidance and encouragement from the principal and senior staff of the school. Support should also be provided from the Education Department or the boards of independent schools.

2. The Professional Development Network

In professional development work within an educational system generally, it must be recognised that people working in the development and the evaluation of the curriculum, consultancy, staff development, teacher education in tertiary institutions, and school-based curriculum and staff development are all inextricably linked; no one activity can take place without influences from the other activities. The nature of the interrelationship of these elements is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The Professional Development Network



Adapted from Goddard (1985, 237)

In this figure, institutional development involves organisational development including modifying the school climate or work environment. Staff development refers to training staff in specific skills. All parties to the professional development network have an important part to play in the process, and only in this way can the needs of all teachers be reasonably met. It is up to each to work out what they can do best, and how to assist the needs expressed by teachers and schools.

All parties servicing the needs of teachers and schools should extend and strengthen the practices at all levels to identify needs and establish communication and links. Schools in turn will need to devise strategies, possibly through working parties and committees, to meet whole-school needs. The effective and efficient provision of support services can only be achieved when the needs are clearly known. Also within each school all these aspects of professional development must be considered and acted upon, if improvements are to occur within a school. It appears that there must be a balance between all the factors of the professional development network to gain improvement in schools. If one element is overlooked, it is suggested here that the possibility of change within the school would be minimal.

If changes are to succeed, it appears essential that all parties within this network must contribute to major efforts planned by an educational system. During 1986 and 1987, the Education Department of Tasmania is planning to focus on revitalising the secondary curriculum in response to social and technological changes in our society. In planning this change, all parts of the educational services of the Education Department of Tasmania are combining their efforts. Likewise, schools will need to consider for development, areas such as senior staff development, school climate, and school staff development practices, if real changes to the curriculum and professional skills are to occur.

3. The Characteristics of Successful Professional Development Activities

The evidence from the Tasmanian evaluation suggests that some types of professional development activities are more successful than others. Teachers believe that strategies for implementing successful school activities should be varied, and include:

- small groups
- large groups
- time for reflection by individuals and groups
- time for sharing ideas and values between participants
- the staff setting priorities for action
- the procedure for developing consensus
- use of different time modules (for example, pupil free days, weekend seminars or workshops, free time during a teacher's day), and
- a thorough program for the reading of professionally related materials.

People organising and leading these activities will need skills in areas such as:

- interpersonal processes (facilitating)
- communication
- working with groups (group dynamics)
- team work, and
- decision making.

In order to plan and implement more successful activities, schools should:

- identify needs of teachers and develop plans based upon these needs
- develop a school policy with guidelines and procedures
- consider the priorities of both the state education department and schools
- pay attention to adult learning characteristics
- use adult learning theories
- use knowledge of processes or strategies to obtain change
- provide a supportive climate
- apply knowledge about what has been learnt about motivation
- relate activities to the real problems of the practice of teaching
- select leaders by expertise rather than seniority
- create time for staff to be involved in professional development activities, for example, by block staff release or increasing teacher relief days, and
- allocate resources to allow the activity to be implemented, and maintain changes in teaching practice.

Naturally the strategies applied in different schools would vary. It is essential that schools have carefully assessed where they are. They must evaluate their current situation in order to determine where they are heading.

3.1 School Improvement

School improvement obviously requires successful staff development. Activities planned for involving a school staff should consider what is known about successful staff development practices. School improvement takes time and requires teachers to talk and reflect about their practice.

Research in Tasmania and overseas by Lieberman *et al.* (1984) and Little (1984) suggests that successful school improvement involves:

- schools identifying clear goals over a number of years
- directing staff development activities to achieving these goals
- building collaboration and cooperation among school staff
- providing *time* for learning
- allocating financial resources to professional development
- recognising the complexity of the craft of teaching
- expanding teachers' awareness of their perceived needs
- being sensitive to the isolation of classroom teachers
- working *with* teachers and making provision for them to talk together and share concerns
- determining the needs of individual teachers as well as the priorities of the school as a whole
- encouraging teachers to increase their knowledge and skills
- constructing flexible and varied staff development programs that are specific and manageable
- protecting and promoting teachers' ideas
- being clear about expectations and having high expectations
- recording the activities and involvement of staff.

Schools must consider the scope of the changes they are attempting. Whole-school reviews are often unmanageable, and when undertaken, may take many years. Schools should only undertake workable tasks in a set time period.

A comprehensive list of staff development practices to guide schools is available in the RPTIM Model developed by Steven R. Thompson. This was developed after a study of the most successful school practices encountered and an examination of the literature concerning staff development. The acronym RPTIM represents these stages of readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance. This model provides an excellent basis for planning professional development activities and to assessing what the current practices are in any school. This model describes thirty-eight practices which should be used when designing staff development in schools. These practices are shown in Table form later in this paper.

4. Necessity of Obtaining a Climate to Support Staff Development

4.1 Research Background

There is an increasing body of empirical evidence which suggests that one of the key features of effective schools is a healthy, positive climate characterised by supportiveness, open communication and collaboration (Owens 1981, 226).

Litwin and Stringer (1968, 5) define climate as:

> The perceived subjective efforts of the formal system, the informal 'style' of managers, and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organisation.

Hoy and Miskel (1982, 185) likewise define organisational climate as 'the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influences the behaviour of people in it'. The organisation climate should be such that constructive change is encouraged, and some analysis would be necessary before the start of any program involving change. The organisational climate can be changed as it consists of internal characteristics which are subject to change.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979, 70) said that the need for an emphasis upon organisational climate is clear.

> A healthy climate frees supervisor and teacher to work more fully on educational matters . . . it permits the supervisor to take a direct lead in educational matters when appropriate, but draws out the leadership talents of others as well. Here relationship becomes a process rather than a set of perogatives associated with the supervisor's role.

The working environment of the school has a significant impact on the commitment of teachers to professional development (Wood, *et al.* 1982, 28). According to Edwards (1983, 29), effective staff development can take place only if a suitable climate has been established.

Little (1981, 1) also highlighted the fact that an attitude supportive of staff development must be part of the belief system of all staff members if professional growth is to occur. She suggested that this group attitude toward staff development is governed by the nature and extent of interpersonal relationships within the school. Little concludes that:

> The success of staff development activities - structured, unstructured, formal or informal - depends significantly upon prevailing attitudes within the organisation in which it is hoped that new ideas will be implemented.

Duignan and Johnson (1983, 1) regard staff development as a 'fundamental and ongoing process which is part of the everyday operation of the school'. This requires that 'the desire for development must be embodied in the philosophy, ethos and organisation of the school, and it should permeate every aspect of its life'.

They go on to suggest that two shared expectations of 'collegiality' and 'experimentation' are necessary if staff development practices are to be successful. Six critical staff practices were identified in a selection of Australian schools as being associated with these norms. These are:

- shared talk
- joint preparation
- informing
- inservice, with reporting back to staff
- interschool joint preparation, and
- social contact.

(Duignan and Johnson 1983, 6)

Brookover *et al.* (1978) found that school climate can affect the behaviour and academic performance of students. These findings were also supported by Rutter *et al.* (1980), Madaus (1980) and Fisher (1982).

When summarising the research effective schools Purkey and Smith (1985, 356-7), stated that:

> The most persuasive research suggests that student performance is strongly affected by school culture . . . composed of values, norms, and roles existing within institutionally distinct structures of governance, communication, educational practices and policies, and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures that produce a climate or 'ethos' conducive to teaching and learning . . . (which) will vary, in part in response to the composition of the staff and student body and to the environment in which the school exists, leaving each school with a unique climate or 'personality' . . . Nevertheless, academically effective schools are likely to possess a cluster of similar characteristics that encourage and promote student achievement.

They then explain that professional development is a key characteristic in their model for creating an effective school (pp.385-9). They stress the importance of, the relationship between school climate, effective schools and staff development practices.

There are many instruments now available which administrators can use to assess various aspects of school climate (Owens 1981; Fisher and Fraser 1983; Docker and Fisher 1985; Fisher, Docker and Fraser 1986).

4.2 The Tasmanian Evaluation – Work Environment Scale and RPTIM Model

During the Tasmanian evaluation a strong relationship between school climate and staff development practices was suggested (Docker *et al.* 1985). This followed an analysis of two surveys administered to school teachers in these schools in Tasmania during 1984.

The two surveys – based upon the Work Environment Scale (WES) and the RPTIM model of staff development practices – obtained scores of perceptions of the 'actual' (what exists) situation and the 'preferred' (what should be) situation in their schools.

4.3 The Work Environment Scale (WES)

The *Work Environment Scale* was developed as a way of measuring human environments. This approach involves assessing the psychological and social dimensions of an environment, as they are perceived by insiders or outsiders. In 1974, Moos developed the WES scale to examine three dimensions of the psycho-social environment. The three dimensions were relationships, personal development, system maintenance and system change.

Full details of the WES, its use in Tasmanian schools and detailed analysis of results can be found in an article by Docker and Fisher (1985). Validation data is examined in an article published by Docker, Fisher and Fraser (1985).

4.4 Description of the RPTIM Model

This research-based model was developed in the United States by Steven R. Thompson. The model is 'a definite attempt to describe a research-based process for designing inservice education that is both systematic and comprehensive'. (Wood *et al.* 1982, 28)

Wood *et al.* (1982) provide full details of the stages, practices and results that occurred in the United States. A similar description, with Tasmanian results and comparison with those results for the United States has been reported by Docker, Hughes and Tanner (1985).

4.5 Implications of the Results

The results of these WES and RPTIM surveys have shown that some schools have better school climates and staff development practices than others. State primary schools recorded the highest scores by school type (primary, high, K-10, secondary, colleges) in both surveys. Furthermore, within each school type there is a range of climates and staff development practices. Schools with good work environments also have good staff development practices, suggesting that there is a strong relationship between school climate and staff development practices in individual schools and by school type.

The argument for this strong relationship is further enhanced by a detailed examination of the school case studies on professional development. Schools, both primary and secondary, that recorded good actual WES and RPTIM 'what exists' results show more positive staff responses to questions about professional development. These schools usually had a whole-school philosophy and policy for staff development that involved all members of the schools' staff.

This philosophy and policy was invariably characterised by:

- staff development activities involving all staff over a weekend or for extended periods after school;
- the encouragement of the personal development of teachers; the principal being involved in these activities in a leadership role; and
- the allocation of resources to support activities which, where necessary, bring about justified change.

Teachers in these schools reported that the principal was supportive of staff and staff practices were conducive to staff development, thus emphasising most positively, relationships of trust and mutual support. In addition, discussion and dialogue among teachers is encouraged, and there is a willingness to share expertise and experience in developing better ways to improve teaching in that school. The same could not be said of responses from schools that scored low on both surveys.

A study of the literature reveals that there is evidence to suggest that a good school climate is a prerequisite to any meaningful improvement in schools. These findings would tend to reinforce this link. Furthermore, discussions about these findings with knowledgeable school practitioners would suggest that this relationship may well be interactive. Although this statement cannot be substantiated statistically from the Tasmanian data, it can be inferred that a good school climate is one which is characterised by the qualities already mentioned. Both the WES and RPTIM surveys provide starting points for schools to reflect on their own situations and improve their school climate and staff development practices.

The hypothesis from the data therefore, is that changes to factors in the school climate are most likely to change staff development practices. This is a two-way, interactive relationship. If one is improved, it is likely to improve aspects of the other.

5. Adults as Learners

Much has been published about motivation and commitment to learning by adults. Keller (1978, 19) summarises these in his statement that 'changes imposed from above seldom work; instead, changes in work habits and attitudes come only from staff members themselves'. Both Auchmuty (1980) and the Vickery Committee of Inquiry in 1980 (cited in Reynolds and Clark 1982, 77) endorse the view that staff should have ultimate responsibility for their own professional development activities. The Karmel Report comments that 'teachers' own experience and self perception were an important starting point for further professional development'. Liebermann (1981, 583) emphasises the critical importance of this stage of planning for professional development by stating that 'any improvement efforts in schools must begin with the concerns and needs of teachers'. This view is also endorsed by Christensen *et al.* (1983, 22).

The attempt to understand how adults learn must be of concern to any educator who is planning professional development activities. As France (1981, 5) emphasises that 'learning, which itself normally involves social interaction, depends on individual motivation, and professional education strategies stand or fall by their capacity to win personal commitment'.

Although a considerable amount of research has been done in the area of adult learning, the results demonstrate the need for further research. Burrello and Orbaugh (1982, 386) comment on the lack of attention given to the learning processes of adults, and the application of this research in classroom teaching. Furthermore, Andrews (in Christensen *et al.* 1983, 6-7) believes that educational programs are not designed for adults because instructors are not trained in adult learning processes. Power (1981, 166) quotes from the literature to suggest:

> that if in-service programmes are to promote professional development, they must treat teachers as professionals, building upon their experience and maturity, supporting their efforts to diagnose problems, and recognising their autonomy and individuality.

The research by Knowles has been further extended by Christensen *et al.* (1983, 6) who suggest general characteristics of adult learners. Such adult learners:

- have a problem-centred orientation;
- prefer to re-define the problem while in the process of learning;
- move into learning situations through the 'experiential imperative';
- have physical and social experiences and personality differences that must be carefully acknowledged; and
- are judgemental, having only so much energy, expending that energy on projects and in ways that meet personal needs.

Wilson and Killion (1982, 36-7) emphasise the requirements for adult learners for participation and personal interest. France (1982, 5) comments that 'activities need to be compatible with the preferred learning style of the individual'.

When planning a professional development program it is essential to recognise that members of a group may have different, preferred learning styles. For maximum effectiveness, the structure of the learning environment should match the preferred style of learning of the participant (McCarthy 1982, 20).

This research demonstrates the necessity to plan for adult learners in a flexible, adaptive manner and relates the need for adult learning principles in the planning of effective professional development activities.

Goodlad and Klein refer to the futility of programs for the development of teachers which treat teachers uniformly as a group. They state that:

> It is unreasonable to believe that teachers' behaviour patterns will be changed by attending lectures, participating in brief orientation sessions, reading manuals or even attending a course where the instructor talks about instead of demonstrates new procedures . . . It is as though we do not expect anything to happen anyway so we just go through the established literature (in Goldsberry and Hoffman 1983, 1).

This is reinforced by Wood and Thompson (1980, 374-8) in an article which presented a list of principles related to adult learning that are relevant to staff development programs. Four assertions, listed below, are included in this list of principles:

- adults will commit to learning something when the goals and objectives of the inservice are considered realistic and important . . . to them;
- adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive is relevant to their personal and professional needs;
- adults want to be the originators of their own learning; that is, they want to be involved in the selection of objectives, contents, activities and assessment of their inservice education;
- adults will resist situations which they believe are an attack on their competence, thus the resistance to imposed inservice topics and activities.

One of the most important pieces of information that can be gleaned from this list of principles on adult learning is that effective inservice development is dependent upon offering activities that are congruent with the needs perceived by the learner. These perceived needs may well be developed and expanded during the activity.

6. Meeting Teachers' Needs

6.1 Research Background

The report by the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1979, 33) identified four levels of inservice education needs:

- the needs of individual teachers;
- the needs of functional working groups of teachers and other people associated with schools;
- the needs of a school as a whole; and
- the needs of school systems.

A balanced staff development program should involve each of these four levels of needs and reflect their relative importance. Reynolds and Clarke (1982, 12) however, point out that 'the actual categories are not as important as the recognition that there does exist a hierarchy of groups with differing needs and that the needs of all are relevant'.

Given the tendency within inservice education to focus on school needs and school-based programs, Reynolds and Clarke warn of the danger of over-commitment to organisational goals at the expense of individual goals. There is some empirical evidence to support the widely held claim that a professional development program is regarded by teachers to be irrelevant unless it 'addressed itself to what they perceive to be their own needs' (Reynolds and Clarke 1982, 14). Staff development must focus on areas where teachers perceive the need for improvement (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979; Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson 1982; Iwanicki and McEachern 1984) if meaningful changes in behaviour are to occur. The needs of individuals are dependent upon the stage of career and associated environmental factors discussed previously.

Morant (1981) discussed four needs of teachers – induction, extension, refreshment and conversion. Christensen *et al.* (1983, 3-4) comment further on adult development theories which influence career cycle views. They believe the developmental task models of Levinson and Erikson are most relevant. Levinson describes transitional periods of adult development in the perspective of life-age, while Erikson relates crises which have effect on the eight psycho-social stages of growth he identified. The importance of these theories lies in their presumption that understanding career cycles of teachers is in the attempt to formulate a depth of knowledge to assist in the assessment of needs for teachers at various stages of their careers.

The impotance of the link between career stages, needs and to the planning of effective professional development activities is discussed by Christensen *et al.* (1983, 21). Morant also believes that career stages are linked to motivation and should be approached flexibly. Burrello (1982) mentions the necessity for response to changing needs. France (1981, 155) indicates 'the difficulty of identifying the real needs of the individual'. These concerns need to be examined if there is not, in Reti's words (1982, 111), 'a mismatch between the content of a course and the expectations of its members'.

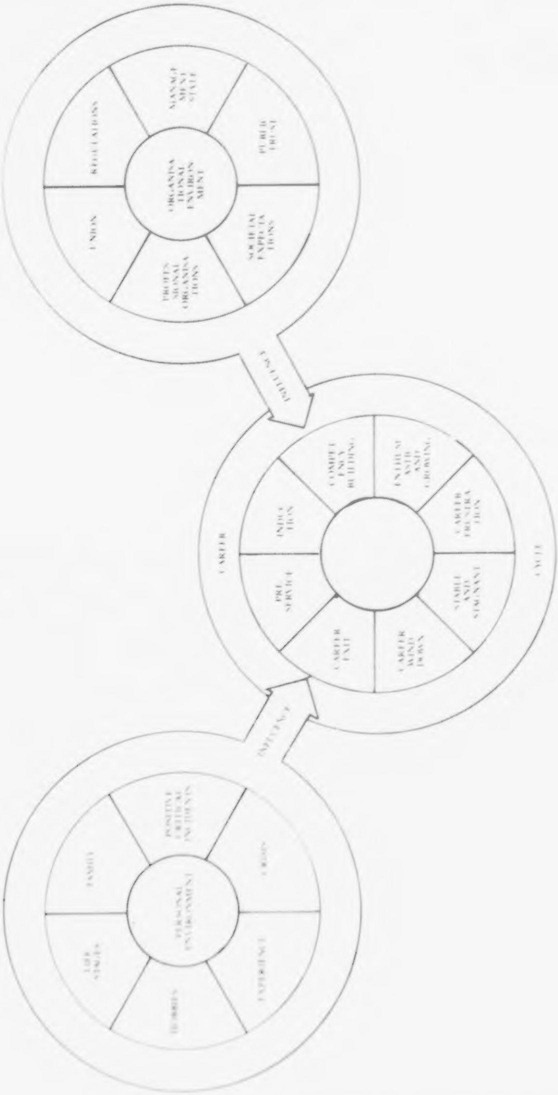
A further critical element in the planning of professional development activities based on the needs of teachers, is what Reti terms (1982, 93) personal or 'teacher-centred' needs.

Fessler *et al.* (1983, 12) comment that 'the concept of staff development and professional growth should be broadened to include concern for the personal needs and problems of teachers'. However, France (1981, 162) states more strongly that:

> The interweave between personal and professional motivations is so close that to see professional development solely in technical or even vocational terms and to expect adults to undertake a formative learning experience without fully engaging their total commitment as a person and worker is likely to be unproductive.

A model which recognises the multitude of factors that affect an individual teacher and his willingness to participate in professional development activities is the career cycle model proposed by Fessler *et al.* This is reproduced in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Dynamics of the Teacher Career Cycle.


MANAGEMENT STYLE
PUBLIC TRUST
SOCIETAL EXPECTATIONS
PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
UNION
REGULATIONS
ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT
INFLUENCE
COMPETENCY BUILDING
ENTHUSIASTIC AND GROWING
CAREER FRUSTRATION
STABLE AND STAGNANT
CAREER WIND-DOWN
CAREER EXIT
PRE-SERVICE
INDUCTION
CAREER
CYCLE
INFLUENCE
POSITIVE CRITICAL INCIDENTS
CRISES
EXPERIENCE
HOBBIES
LIFE STAGES
FAMILY
PERSONAL ENVIRONMENT

Fessler, Burke and Christensen (1983)

This model recognises the influences of both the personal environment and the organisational environment on the career cycle of a teacher.

In this model, the authors do not tie features of the career cycle to age as most models of teacher development do, for example, the wind down of a career being associated with years just before retirement, but rather they postulate that teachers will move in and out of various sections of the career cycle as factors in the personal and organisational environments bring varying pressures to bear. Fessler *et al.* (1983) construct several scenarios to demonstrate the application of the model in explaining how personal and organisational factors affect the career development of a teacher.

The implications of this model for professional development are clearly enunciated by the authors when they state that:

> - The traditional inservice and professional growth activities that emphasise improved teaching skills are appropriate at certain points in a teacher's career.
> - The concept of staff development and professional growth should be broadened to include concern for the personal needs and problems of teachers.
> - Organisational policies should be examined to provide support for teachers at various phases of their career cycles.
> - Approaches to staff development and growth that advocate personalised, individualised support systems should be emphasised.
>
> (Fessler *et al.* 1983, 12-3)

Thus it can be understood why the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers report (in Goddard 1985) said 'it has been found that the basis for change and the effective identification of the need for training and its implementation is the quality and climate of the school'.

Bell (1985b, 247) considers that:

> every school should have an agreed procedure that:
> (1) The needs for in-service training and professional development of individual teachers and of groups of teachers within the school and the school as a whole are reviewed; and
> (2) The priorities for in-service training, and the most appropriate means of meeting the different needs identified, are assessed in consultation with the school community and in the context of declared curricular aims and objectives.

Clearly the term 'needs' and 'needs assessment' must be defined. Kaufman and English (1981, 56), defining the important term 'need', state that:

> On the one hand, need is conceived of only as a noun – as a gap between current outcomes and desired or required outcomes. On the other, the term is used differently, sometimes referring to an outcome gap, and at others to a process or solution gap.

Reti (1980, 93) also comments that the term 'teacher's needs' is one of the vaguest and most loosely used expressions in the still ill-defined field of staff development. He suggests that the term springs from the lips of those responsible for inservice training, and comments:

> But what is it that teachers are supposed to need, and according to whom? And if they do have professional needs, how are these identified – and how validly? And having been identified, how far can they effectively be met? These are fundamental questions, some of them seldom even asked, let alone answered.

Kaufman and English (1981, 53) state that:

> Few topics in education are 'hotter' than needs assessment. A number of models and concepts are available, but considerable confusion exists about such basic questions as: (1) what is 'need'? (2) what is a 'needs assessment'? and (3) when should a needs assessment be made and, if it is, which of many available models should be used?

'Need' is obviously a difficult concept in education and 'needs assessment' can be a deceptive process. However, needs assessments are an essential part of effective professional development programs, as diagnosed needs of constituent interests should be the basis for the development of activities to fulfil these needs. Usually inservice education claims to meet these assessed needs.

Kaufman (1981, 31) suggests that a needs assessment is:

> a tool for determining valid and useful problems which are philosophically as well as practically sound. It keeps us from running down more blind educational alleys, from using time, dollars, and people in attempted solutions which do not work. It is a tool for problem identification and justification. This tool has been a long time in evolving, and more will be done in future years, even future generations.
>
> Needs assessment is a humanising process to help make sure that we are using our time and the learners' time in the most effective and efficient manner possible. Do we owe our children and ourselves any less?

Kaufman (p.29) concurs with Guba and Lincoln (1982) that values must be considered when determinations of 'what is' and 'what should be' are being delineated. Values of people, individually and collectively, are an integral and undeniable fact of needs assessment and planning.

Marshall *et al.* (1982b, 6) suggest that a needs assessment should form the central focus for planning and implementing of programs for staff development. They suggest an evaluation of staff development should take place. This evaluation would include a needs assessment on which a staff development program can be planned and implemented. Staff should participate mainly in the implementation stage. Marshall suggests that there is little consensus as to the best method of assessment. Generally, the procedures can be classified on a continuum from informal to formal. Some people have tried to develop instruments and define 'best' ways of assessing needs, but most authors agree that it is not simple and that needs, once articulated need to be developed.

Marshall conducted a study to compare two methods (an informal, person-to-person method, and a formal, systematic data-gathering method) for conducting a needs assessment for inservice education and examined their consistency of information and comparative validity. He concluded that either the formal or informal types of needs assessment were equally valid for obtaining information to plan and implement staff development programs.

Of the informal process, he comments that:

> Nonetheless, for the individual depth provided by the personal one-to-one interview process, it was found to be difficult to cluster the needs into meaningful categories for planning. The critical element here is that staff development programs are implemented for groupings of teachers having like needs. With in-depth information on each teacher, no two were alike. After spending several hours on the analysis, it was discovered by the researchers that they had to pull back from the detailed teacher profiles. The information was found to be useful in developing clusters for planning at the macro level; however, at the micro-mediation level, the uniqueness of each teacher's concerns clouded the process, making it nearly impossible to glean the generalisations necessary for useful planning. Thus, as a general principle it seems that needs identified at the macro level can be meaningfully utilised in the planning process, regardless of the micro-mediations that constitute the macro need. In fact, the micro-mediations may confound planning by over-emphasising the uniqueness of individuals to the point that the common thrusts are lost.
>
> It was evident that the informal process provided specific, individualised information; while the formal questionnaire provided more generalised information. The more individualised information was more difficult to work with since it had to be synthesised and categorised on a post hoc basis. But it did provide insights into some needs that were masked in the a priori categorisation of the formalised assessment. As related here, each method had its strengths and weaknesses.

Marshall *et al.* concluded that it was appropriate that managers of staff development programs put aside their bias concerning the validity of one method over another, as in their opinion either method can provide valid data. The decision as to which method should be used in a given program would be better made by considering the primary purpose for the assessment, time and cost, efficiency, secondary uses for the information, and similar concerns.

It is also interesting to note that in longitudinal studies of the needs of three groups of teachers over fifteen, twenty-four and forty month periods, Marshall *et al.* (1982a) reported that the general categories of need remain stable over one, two and three periods. However, while the groupings of needs remained stable, it was reported that the expressed needs of individual teachers changed considerably over these same periods.

6.3 Needs Identified in the Tasmanian Evaluation – Methodology and Findings

During the Tasmanian evaluation of professional development the thirty schools that completed the case studies each conducted an in-depth needs assessment of both teacher and school needs. In an interview schedule common to all the schools, three questions related to needs:

- Do you have any professional needs that could be served by school-based activities?
- Do you have any professional needs that could be served by system-based activities?
- Could you indicate specific professional development activities in which you would like to participate?

More than 500 teachers answered these questions, and the evaluators then probed for further meanings. These responses were summarised by evaluators and then discussed at staff meetings in schools so that they could develop policies and a program to meet these needs.

Briefly, the results showed that support was high for school-based activities in primary schools and district high schools. Moderate support was given in high schools and secondary colleges, although many staff members preferred subject-oriented activities rather than whole-school seminars. Preferences were expressed for developing activities in curriculum innovation and development, staff conferences or seminars, 'hands on' workshops, and 'subject knowledge' workshops. Most interviewees considered these activities would establish either a common set of attitudes and purposes among staff or a common philosophy. Perhaps whole-school activities could be viewed as a process to encourage development of a common vision of school goals or specific developmental activities among staff.

More than half of the teachers interviewed suggested they had needs that could be serviced by system-based activities. Courses at tertiary institutions and the Centre for Continuing Education for Teachers (CCET) were often favourably mentioned. Considerable support was also expressed for Ideas (Commonwealth Schools Commission) seminars. Visits to areas of educational specialisation, such as mathematics, science and environmental centres, were recognised as places for dissemination of useful information and practical advice.

In response to the question about future needs, most evaluators expressed surprise about the wide variety of needs cited. Seldom did more than two interviewees in any school express the same need. This obviously indicated a problem for administrators when attempting to structure the needs of individuals and schools into a school development program.

When considering future needs, most interviewees suggested activities that would improve their performance in the classroom. However, when three or four people mentioned mathematics, they all wanted different things such as remedial mathematics, programs for the gifted, diagnostic programs, or use of computers in mathematics. This was true of primary, high and independent schools. There was no significant agreement within the range of suggestions, except for computer awareness and behaviour management. Similarly, when a need for evaluation was expressed, some schools wanted to conduct evaluations, others to understand the process or think through key questions involved in school evaluation, whilst some wanted to develop and refine evaluation instruments. Others were thinking of political processes for getting staff to communicate, interact and establish common goals.

No doubt the lists of needs developed by school evaluators were of use. Part of the evaluation process was to draw up a list of expressed, individual needs to be discussed by staff at regular staff meetings. Following such discussions, summaries of school needs were to be developed. Some evaluators asked staff to discuss issues relating to different needs in small groups and then seek consensus in order to specifically pinpoint school needs. These lists, and staff discussions, gave the evaluators and senior staff of schools the opportunity to take some initiatives in promoting the type of professional development seen as important by staff.

In order to obtain a more useful, systematic view of state-wide needs, the information from the case studies in different schools was summarised and analysed. It was then decided to develop a systematic needs assessment using a modified Delphi technique (Docker, 1985).

A stratified sample of 200 teachers was selected to include four specific groups. The first group comprised of 20 were regional and services' superintendents; the second group 30 evaluators of school case studies; the third group 50 senior staff in schools services; and the fourth group 100 teachers in primary, high, K-10 schools and secondary colleges. These groups were also selected to allow for a balance of males and females, and to reflect the range of the age groups within the teaching profession.

The data was analysed by a computerised program that allowed Chi-squared tests to be performed on the data. Cross references were made to teacher's age, sex, specific group and status. Details about the analysis of the data are provided in the evaluation report (Docker *et al.* 1985, 223-47). The most important five statements in each area of needs are presented below:

Classroom Teacher
- Individualisation of student programs
- Motivating the unmotivated
- Curriculum update
- Way students learn
- Literacy skills

General School
- School management
- School evaluation
- School climate
- Communication
- Behaviour management

Primary Subject
- Language
- Reading
- Mathematics
- Children's literature
- Science

Those marked by asterisks remained in the top five statements in each of the three general areas above after each round. The other three steadily climbed to reach the top five.

Of statements which attracted a minority of support, most climbed marginally, usually one to three places. The only exception was statement 20 about the classroom teacher's needs for computers. This attracted very strong support from a minority, and the statement rose in priority order to number 14. It would appear that the opinions of minority groups changed other participants' opinions to some degree, usually resulting in a slightly higher rating. Some areas of need suggested by participants did receive considerable support, while others did not. Cross referencing different variables and then applying Chi-square tests indicated variations of opinions about some statements according to sex and status of respondents.

6.4 Summary of Discussion of Needs

Overall, this research would suggest support for Marshall's research that both formal and informal needs assessments obtained reasonably consistent information on which staff development programs could be planned and implemented. Most needs expressed as high priorities in the formal assessment above, were mentioned repeatedly in the original data obtained from the school case studies.

The conclusions from the needs assessments that were part of the Tasmanian evaluation, would suggest that in a developmental model of professional development, needs and motivaton arise essentially from teachers. Therefore, such needs as expressed by staff, should form a basis for a professional development program. In addition the needs of students, the community, priorities of the Education Department, social factors and other people may enlighten and broaden the views of teachers. All these factors should be considered when establishing the needs for a professional development program in a school or for a system.

From this research it would appear that schools should:

- determine needs of both the individual teacher and priorities for the whole school;
- encourage and extend opportunities for professional growth and promote a wide range of professional development activities;
- construct flexible programs so that one can respond to needs as they vary throughout a school year; and
- keep a record of the activities and involvement of staff.

Despite the diversity of teacher opinions, both formal and informal methods of establishing needs used in the evaluation, point to agreed strategies and preferences from the perceptions of teachers. These starting points are listed in order to assist developing an informed debate.

Preferences for professional development activities may be given to expressed needs that:

- respond to the needs of teachers
- have immediate application to the classroom
- are based on sound theoretical precepts and research
- are attended by teams of staff, and therefore maximising opportunities to promote 'collegiality'
- are properly planned, having clearly stated purposes and are of high quality
- cross subject boundaries in secondary schools
- use approaches that encourage teachers to reflect upon the appropriateness of their methods of teaching (for example, applying clinical

supervision, applying action-research, applying classroom environment scales

- review and develop the school curriculum – which should generally be confined to specific and manageable tasks not to total school reviews, and
- broaden the perceived needs of teachers.

In addition, whole-school seminars should be carefully planned and:

- be based upon the needs of teachers in the school
- not be imposed by the senior staff
- involve staff in organisation, development and review
- involve expertise from outside the school which may consist of advice on planning; or from a consultant or the leader of a workshop
- should consider research-based, effective staff development practices such as the RPTIM model, and
- choose leaders because of their expertise rather than their hierarchical position in an hierarchical organisation.

General areas of the curriculum and varying the scope of teaching methods were often mentioned as needs during the school case studies. Care should be taken to identify precisely the focus within the school, and to plan activities to achieve this. Aspects related to the curriculum often mentioned as priorities in schools include:

- curriculum policies
- curriculum review
- processes of curriculum development
- revision of content or subject areas
- teaching methodologies (range of teaching styles)
- curriculum trends (futures)
- philosophy and objectives
- specialist needs
- achievement testing and diagnostic assessment
- curriculum skills of communication, writing, thinking, calculation
- communication over whole-school and between subject departments
- interpersonal processes, and
- integration of subjects through applying thematic approaches.

Aspects of the craft of teaching, frequently mentioned as needs, were:

- evaluating current educational practices
- handling disruptive children
- behaviour management
- motivating children
- raising self-esteem of children and teachers
- catering for children with different abilities
- classroom management
- specific teaching skills, and
- interpersonal skills.

Strategies suggested for evaluating the craft of teaching include:

- peer supervision (clinical supervision)
- analysis of classroom environment
- use of outsiders, especially consultants
- visiting classes to view other teachers
- continuously planned activities (not 'one-off' events)
- tackling one, or a limited number of areas, at any time
- ensuring that improving teaching practice is an inservice priority within the school
- allocating money for professional development
- using outsiders to assist teachers (process consultants)
- maintaining a positive climate and emphasis on the growth of teachers
- involving all teachers and administrators in the school, and
- using a wide variety of techniques and providing choices for teachers.

In summary, it should be a clear expectation that the school principal assess the needs of both teachers and the school as a basis for planning a professional development program. This may well involve people outside the school. Services branches within the system should respond to and develop strategies to support the expressed needs of teachers and schools.

7. The Negotiation of Activities, Content and Methodology

From the study of the needs elucidated from the literature and in the Tasmanian evaluation, the author would argue that such needs are only expressed areas of interest. Once participants have opted to attend an activity in one of these areas, the organiser of the activity should then negotiate the contents with those attending before, or at the beginning of, the activity. For instance, a group attending a seminar on school climate may be interested in the results of studies, the theoretical basis of the concept, planning a process to involve staff in the school, instruments used in evaluation, or developing strategies for improving aspects of the school climate.

Our studies would suggest it is one thing to get the contents of the 'title' right, but another to cater for a vast range of different needs of adult learners who are attending. Perhaps all proposed professional development activities should have a clear statement of purpose as to what the activity is about. Individual needs should then be negotiated with the group prior to, or at the beginning of the activity.

Although the Tasmanian sample in the needs assessment was relatively small, it could be argued that the process started from a reliable and valid data base (school case studies) and clarified the perceptions of teachers during the series of questionnaires. Perhaps this is a more realistic approach than one in which a small group of educators decide about what teachers need from a limited base of information and then draw up priorities for most activities.

A number of characteristics of successful activities were listed in Section 3 of this paper. It is suggested that planners of professional development activities should encourage leaders to use a wide variety of teaching techniques, consider different venues and seminar formats, vary the size of groups and use teaching aids. In this way leaders should cater better for a wide variety of teacher learning styles. Good professional development should be modelled upon good teaching techniques and reflect concern for the needs and learning styles of individuals. They should also value the contribution to be made from the participants. Generally, a group of ten teachers attending a seminar or discussion, bring with them over a hundred years of teaching experience. Leaders must develop strategies to allow this huge repertoire of experiences to be discussed and reflected upon by participants. The teachers should be the experts in the craft of teaching and professional development activities should be built upon their experiences.

A survey encompassing a sample of over 600 teachers, studying year-long, award-bearing courses offered through the Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (CCET) in Tasmania, indicated some most encouraging results. These included:

- 88% of the teachers in schools said they have been able to use in their work the things learnt through their subject study in their classroom or school;
- 68% said their knowledge of the subject area had increased;
- 40% stated that they felt they were more confident teachers as a result of the study;
- 35% stated that they were better able to look after the needs of individual students; and
- 34% stated that they had improved their teaching skills.

However, when these results were cross referenced against the thirty subjects studied by the teachers, large variations occurred in responses to the questions above in other questions on the survey. This would suggest the lecturers of courses should also spend time in discussing methodologies, teaching skills and methods of relating to teacher needs, so that the more successful experiences of lecturers and teachers are discussed. Teachers perceived a wide variation in the ability of lecturers to relate the subject knowledge to teacher needs, and thus perceived that some subjects are much more successful than others, when measured by the questions above.

Another group of CCET subjects in the senior staff development program (Docker, 1985) included evaluation, curriculum and administration. These subjects all received far higher percentages to the questions above. The methodology used for these subjects appear to be critical to their success. It is essential to use adult learning techniques and base the course on problems and issues encountered in the workplace. Most course participants do not expect to be told what their problems are and what should be done to solve them. They value and expect to use their own school expertise and experience derived from schools. In addition, the experience and research of others is used to provide further insights into the experience of the participants.

The course coordinator of the evaluation course starts by asking senior staff to come to the course with problems or issues they wish to study. The problems are then studied by individuals, or in small groups if the issue is common to a number of participants. Knowledge on evaluation is provided when and where it relates to the issues under examination.

Plenary sessions are held so that participants share their problems, approaches to data collection and interpretation, and methods of ensuring reliability and validity. As no formal lectures are held, it is not as comfortable for lecturers as delivering a sequence of lectures or seminars about evaluation. In fact, our experience is that the demands on lecturers are high because more contact is needed to help teachers with their own area of study. On the other hand, the course is built around dialogue between the coordinator and participants about their needs; they are free to move at their own pace, and they can extend their insights when appropriate. The approach develops a partnership between schools, senior staff, tertiary institutions and employers, tackling the educational problems of schools. Another subject called curriculum workshop, using a similar methodology, is proving a most successful way of examining the secondary curriculum.

B. Program Planning – The RPTIM Model

An outcome of the Tasmanian evaluation was the perceived agreement of teachers and administrators as to the value of the RPTIM Model for planning staff development in schools and education departments. It offers an overview of the key stages in professional development and details specific staff development practices. Wood *et al.* (1982) concluded that the survey instrument had face validity. His findings concluded that:

- the 38 practices which defined the RPTIM model were valued and appropriate to guide staff development in schools (see Figure 3);
- the practices were generally neglected and not practices to the extent they were valued when staff development is planned and delivered; and
- more attention needs to be paid to 'readiness', 'implementation' and 'maintenance' in staff development programs.

When used in Tasmanian schools the results gained from administration of the instrument supported these views. Obviously much needs to be done in schools to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of staff development programs, and to expect these things to occur in a very short time would not be realistic.

The model highlights the essential problem of creating a good working climate within the school before staff development activities can successfully occur. However, when considering the implications of these findings it is well to remember that although the study was conducted in schools, it is not only there that action must be taken.

Figure 3. RPTIM Model Practices

Stage I: Readiness

1. A positive school climate is developed before other staff development efforts are attempted.
2. Goals for school improvement are written collaboratively by teachers, parents, and senior staff in schools.
3. The school has a written list of goals for the improvement of school programs during the next three to five years.
4. The school staff adopts and supports goals for the improvement of school programs.
5. Current school practices are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.
6. Current educational practices not yet found in the school are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.
7. The school staff identifies specific plans to achieve the school's goals for improvement.
8. Leadership and support during the initial stage of staff development activity are the responsibility of the principal and regional and State administration and services staff.

Stage II: Planning

9. Differences between desired and actual practices in the school are examined to identify the in-service needs of the staff.
10. Planning of staff development activities relies, in part, on information gathered directly from school staff members.
11. In-service planners use information about the learning styles of participants when planning staff development activities.
12. Staff development programs include objectives for in-service activities covering as much as five years.
13. The resources (time, money, people and materials) available for use in staff development are identified prior to planning in-service activities.
14. Staff development programs include plans for activities to be conducted during the following three to five years.
15. Specific objectives are written for staff development activities.
16. Staff development objectives include objectives for attitude development (new outlooks and feelings).
17. Staff development objectives include objectives for increased knowledge (new information and understanding).
18. Staff development objectives include objectives for skill development (new work behaviours).
19. Leadership during the planning of in-service programs is shared among teachers and administrators.

Stage III: Training

20. Staff development activities include the use of learning teams in which two to seven participants share and discuss learning experiences.
21. Individual school staff members choose objectives for their own professional learning.
22. Individual school staff members choose the staff development activities in which they participate.
23. Staff development activities include experiential activities in which participants try out new behaviours and techniques.
24. Peers help to teach one another by serving as in-service leaders.
25. School principals participate in staff development activities with their staffs.
26. Leaders of staff development activities are selected according to their expertise rather than their position.
27. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly competent, leadership behaviour becomes less directive or task-oriented.
28. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly confident in their abilities, the leader transfers increasing responsibility to the participants.

Figure 3. RPTIM Model Practices (cont.)

Stage IV: Implementation

29. After participating in in-service activities, participants have access to support services to help implement new behaviours as part of their regular work.
30. School staff members who attempt to implement new learnings are recognised for their efforts.
31. The leaders of staff development activities visit the job setting, when needed, to help the in-service participants refine or review previous learning.
32. School staff members use peer supervision to assists one another in implementing new work behaviours.
33. Resources (time, money, people and materials) are allocated to support the implementation of new practices following staff development activities (funds to purchase new instructional materials, time for planning, and so forth).
34. The school principal actively supports efforts to implement changes in professional behaviour.

Stage V: Maintenance

35. Senior staff systematically monitor the implementation of new teaching practices.
36. School staff members use systematic techniques of self-monitoring to maintain new work behaviours.
37. Student feedback is used to monitor new practices.
38. Responsibility for the maintenance of new school practices is shared by both teachers and administrators.

Note: After Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson (1982). Items 2, 8, 13, 33, and 35 were slightly adapted as shown for the Tasmanian survey.

The appointment and further professional development of people in the support services is essential to ensure there are highly skilled people to assist schools in the design and execution of staff development programs. Whenever funding for education becomes more limited, such people are often considered expendable. Yet, without them, many programs will be implemented in an *ad hoc* fashion, fragmented and, be in danger of not continuing after the initial flush of a new idea has faded.

Along with providing this external support, there is a need for continuing discussions with and among principals and senior staff about such matters as the RPTIM model and what constitutes an effective staff development program. Development programs for these people are also desirable to help them develop the skills necessary to play an effective role in professional development.

9. The Influence of Educational Technology on Teaching and Learning

In this section, an attempt will be made to apply the principles discussed in earlier parts of this paper, using educational technology as an example. The term 'educational technology' is taken to refer to a planning and design process that attempts to utilise the best combination of human resources and technological innovations to accomplish a desired educational objective. An inventory of any school will show that the amount and variety of available hardware and software is usually staggering. The array of new information technology available, or potentially available, to schools has greatly increased in quantity and sophistication in recent years.

9.1 Current Practice

Most teachers would agree with the generalised statements listed below, relating to current practices of teachers and the uses of educational technology in schools:

- teachers teach as they were taught, therefore there is a predominance of teacher talk and direction
- teachers lack knowledge, confidence about computerised technology, and therefore, the desire to use computerised technology
- teachers consider preparation of lesson aids for using technology as time consuming and of low priority
- teachers do not plan ahead for the use of technology
- teachers need more skills in classroom management to effectively use a variety of technological hardware
- teachers need to develop skills to evaluate materials and software
- teachers lack time to adequately evaluate the large quantity of audiovisual aids
- teachers are easily sold different types of technology and educational kits by salesmen, and
- teachers use audiovisual programs for a whole class of students at any one time.

It could be argued that school staff management of educational resources is generally *ad hoc* as outlined below:

- schools possess a large quantity of hardware which is poorly used
- schools usually have no criteria for selection and siting of technology or the allocation of resources
- schools generally have out-moded approaches to their use of audiovisual material (there is often no central listing and therefore location of equipment is a problem)
- school timetable structures usually mitigate effective use of films and videotapes
- school equipment tends to be scattered around schools causing people to move to different areas to obtain resources (lack of intershelving storage space)
- adults have most computers in one specialised classroom
- central offices in education departments often make decisions on what audiovisuals to buy – that is, they are not professional teacher-use decisions linked to the curriculum
- school time allocated to staff discussion of effective use of technology is usually minimal and staff discussion generally uninformed
- school budgeting for technology is short-term and often viewed as 'icing on the cake', and
- schools usually allow inadequate budgeting for installation maintenance, for example, networking of computers in a school requires expensive cabling to be laid.

9.2 Outside Pressures

In industry the pressures and incentives to modernise practices and methods are provided at the marketplace. Education is not subject to these competitive pressures and as a result there is often a tendency to be complacent. We are now at the stage where much of the knowledge that was previously gained in formal ways in the classroom is acquired from a world rich in information. As Galbally (1985) stated, '. . . the question is whether the revolution in technology determines the future of education, or whether we will be in a position to use technological change to further the goals and objectives . . . of values of our own choice'.

It is often suggested that we missed our opportunity to teach about television. Our patterns of teaching in schools relate to critical analysis of texts when most adults read no more than one or two books a year. At the same time, they watch nearly four hours of television a day. Perhaps the critics may be able to say the same about computers in a decade. If we continue to ignore the impact of computers in society, will multinationals develop all the educational software for home users with the aim of bypassing the formal education system? There is already evidence of this in the United States.

One of the recommendations of the recent *Quality of Education in Australia* report states

> Education authorities should give attention to four aspects of the impact of recent technological change on schooling: the acquisition of skills in operating computers; the employment of the new technology as a teaching tool; the role of technological change in social and economic development; and the teaching of mathematics and science. (Karmel 1985)

Their viewpoint is clear; it is now up to individual states to develop and formulate coordinated strategies to deal with these guidelines.

In addition, teachers and the public are being barraged through the media and corporations about new information technologies including interactive television and the potential of domestic satellites.

9.3 What Should Be

Our experience must suggest that professional development activities reflect classroom teaching. Seldom is technology used well.

Video tapes and computers could be used in most teachers' homes and yet we are still coming to grips with these new tools in an educational setting. It is clear that Australia's domestic satellite system and the pressure for computer literacy in skills has caused educators to re-examine their attitudes towards communications technology. The task is immense and we have no real answers.

However it is clear that professional development practices should model good teaching. Professional development should be at the forefront in pioneering the use of educational media. In this way teachers can reflect on its use and consider the implications for their classroom. This is part of setting a receptive and reflective climate to allow for changes in professional knowledge and skills. Senior staff in schools need to be provided with an information base for managing change within the school. This may include detailed reflection on current practice, changes in school structures, advantages to the art of teaching, and an examination of funding implications.

Teachers would need to reflect upon the purpose of using educational media. Perhaps the initial question to be answered is: What technology can be used to teach better what a child needs to know? It certainly has the potential to provide teachers with assistance in developing new pedagogical models – allowing new ways for teachers to spend more time with individuals and small groups. Interaction between teachers, learners and curriculum materials should be enhanced, or at least varied, by the use of technology.

9.4 The Example of Computers

During the last four years nearly one thousand teachers (15 per cent of the teaching force) have studied a CCET year-long, award-bearing course in computers and education in Tasmania. While this is a healthy starting point, we are only now aware of the amount of knowledge needed by teachers before a school staff can wisely decide on the use of computers for learning and allocating appropriate resources. Already many of these teachers who have completed a year-long course in the last four years need a refresher course to bring them up to date. The implications for systems support are immense. To the author it would appear that to come to grips with the implications of computers alone, the following steps need to occur in the area of teacher development as a matter of urgency:

1. As the changes stated above will appear in most schools during the next decade, the urgent need is to create an informed debate on these issues among teachers, parents, business and business leaders. In this way resources can be thoughtfully gathered and decisions made sequentially to allow for the maximum potential of technology in aiding teachers to improve educational practice. Essentially teachers all need to know how computers and other technologies can help them.
2. It is apparent that the following commitments within the professional development of teachers need to be undertaken:
   (i) Large scale retraining is essential if teachers are to make computers an integral part of classroom instruction. This does not have to be at a large additional cost. This should be treated as an emergency situation.
   (ii) Retraining of teachers would be accomplished best by a 'cascade effect'. Resource people in schools would then train teachers and parents, thus accelerating and multiplying the impact of additional inservice. In addition, training of new teachers about new information technology (NIT) should be a prominent part of pre-service training.

(iii) Key areas for inservice should be directed to:

- investigating background to technological advances and NIT in contemporary society
- the potential uses of the technology in classrooms and schools
- the classroom and school management of technology
- the development, design and evaluation of computer software, and
- providing 'hands-on' experience in the use of self-paced, multimedia packages.

Such inservice programs should use the best training and learning techniques available to assist teachers and possibly parents. Self-paced, multimedia packages should be considered an essential tool in such inservice training programs. The purpose of these activities would be to provide an informed debate so that teachers can decide what the use of computers should be in schools and how they can be better used to teach what children need to know. In this way the purpose is defined before resources both human and financial are allocated and possibly wasted.

10. The Conclusion

There is a massive task ahead for those involved in professional development of teachers. It is a time of diminishing funding in education – historically when an emphasis on the development of human resources becomes prevalent. If improvement in the teaching profession is to occur then educational systems should clearly state the expectation that teachers should be involved in inservice programs. Professional development activities should be planned and implemented to assist this change.

Organisers and leaders of activities should apply the knowledge of successful programs that we now possess. Needs of teachers and schools must be articulated so that provision of services can be planned. These professional development programs should apply state-of-the-art technology to assist the purpose of the activity, while paying attention to the people and processes involved. Above all, professional development activities should model good teaching practice and be an example in promoting change in the professional knowledge and skills of teachers. This debate should start with the leaders of professional development activities and flow through to teachers by example and experience.

Leaders of education systems should set expectations that *all* members of the teaching service, from the most senior administrators to the youngest of teachers, be involved in professional development. This should be supported with appropriate resources and accountability mechanisms. All leaders in professional development activities, whether in or outside schools, should be encouraged to apply the knowledge that we now possess about successful professional development activities.

References

Bell, G. (1985a) Can schools develop knowledge of their practice? *School Organisation*, 5 (2).

Bell, G. (1985b) INSET: Five types of collaboration and consultancy. *School Organisation*, 5 (3).

Brookover, W.B. *et al.* (1978) Elementary School Social Climate and School Achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 15 (2).

Burrello, L.C. and Orbaugh, T. (1982) Reducing the Discrepancy between the Known and the Unknown in In-Service Education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 63 (1).

Christensen, J., Burke, P. and Fessler, R. (1983) Teacher Life-Span Development: A summary and synthesis of the literature, paper presented at annual meeting of *American Education Research Association*, Montreal, Canada.

Commonwealth Schools Commission (1979) Issues in Teacher Education, *A discussion paper*, Canberra.

Docker, J. (1985) Intensive Senior Staff Development Program – A Co-operative Approach in Tasmania, *Unicorn*, 11 (4).

Docker, J. and Fisher, D. (1985) School Climate in Tasmania, *Theory Into Practice in Tasmania*, 1 (1).

Docker, J., Fisher, D. and Fraser, B.J. (1985) Assessing Teachers' Perceptions of their School-level Environment, paper presented to AARE Conference, Hobart.

Docker, J., Fisher, D. and Hughes, P. (1985) *An Evaluation of Professional Development Practices in Tasmania 1983-85*. Education Department of Tasmania, Hobart.

Docker, J., Hughes, P. and Tanner, N. (1985) Professional Development in Tasmanian Schools – RPTIM Model *Panorama*, 6 (1).

Duignan, P. and Johnson, N. (1983) Critical Practices in the Social Organisation of a School and their impact on Staff Development: Implications for the School Principal. Presented to ACEA Conference in Brisbane.

Edwards, D. (1983) Development within Schools – The Release of Human Potential, *New Horizons in Education*, 69.

Fessler, R., Burke, P. and Christensen, J. (1983) Teacher Career Cycle Model: A Framework for Viewing Teacher Growth Needs. Paper presented at annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

Fisher, D.L. (1982) Relationships of actual classroom environment and actual-preferred congruence to student outcomes. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Macquarie University.

Fisher, D.L. and Fraser, B.J. (1983) Use of W.E.S. to assess science teachers' perceptions of school environment. *European Journal of Science Education*, 5 (2).

France, G.H. (1981) Aspects of the Professional Development of the Classroom Teacher in Mid-Career, *Unicorn*, 7 (2).

France, G.H. (1982) Encouraging the Professional Growth of Classroom Teacher in Mid-Career, *The Practising Administrator*.

Goddard, D. (1985) ACSET: Its implementation in a wider context. *School organisation*, 5 (3).

Goldsberry, L.F. and Hoffman, N.E. (1983) Job-Embedded Staff Development. Paper presented to the 1983 Annual Conference of the *American Educational Research Association*, Montreal, Canada.

Goodlad, J.I. (1983) A Study of Schooling: Some Findings and Hypotheses, *Phi Delta Kappan*, 64 (7).

Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y. (1982) The Place of Values in Needs Assessment. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 4 (3).

Hoy, W.K. and Miskel, C.G. (1982) *Educational Administration*, 2nd Edition, Random House, New York.

Iwanicki, E. and McEachern (1984) Using teacher self-assessment to identify staff development needs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, XXXV (2).

Karmel, P. *et al.* (1985) *Quality of Education in Australia*. Report of the Review Committee. AGPS, Canberra.

Kaufman, R. and English, F. (1981) *Needs Assessment – Concept and Application*. Educational Technology Publications, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey (second printing).

Keller, A.J. (1978) In-Service Education: A blueprint for action, *New Jersey Education Review*, 51 (7).

Lieberman, A. and Miller, L. (1984) School Improvement: Themes & Variations. *Teachers' College Record*, 86 (1).

Little, J.W. (1984) Seductive Images & Organisational Realities in Professional Development. *Teachers' College Record*, 86 (1).

Little, J.W. (1981) The Power of Organisational Setting: School Norms and Staff Development. Paper presented at American Educational Research Association.

Madaus, G.F., Airasian, P.W. and Kellaghan, T. (1980) *School Effectiveness: A Reassessment of the Evidence*. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Marshall, J.C., Maschek, R. and Caldwell, S.D. (1982a) How stable are Teachers' Inservice interests over 15, 24 and 40 Month Time Periods? Paper presented at the 1982 AERA National Meeting, New York.

Marshall, J.C. *et al.* (1982b) Looking at Needs Assessment for Staff Development, A Research Study, *Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development*, Berkeley, California.

Marshall, J.C., Caldwell, S. and Maschek, R.M. (1983) The Self-Perceived Needs of Classroom Teachers. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Montreal, Canada.

McCabe, C. (1980) *Evaluating In-Service Training for Teachers*. NFER Publishing Company, Windsor.

McCarthy, B. (1982) Improving Staff Development through CBAM and 4Mat, *Educational Leadership*, 40 (1).

Moos, R.H. (1974) *Preliminary manual for family environment scale, work environment scale, group environment scale*, Consulting Psychologists' Press, Palo Alto, California.

Moos, R.H. (1979) *Evaluating educational environments: procedures, measures, findings and policy implication*. Jossey Bass, San Francisco.

Morant, R.W. (1981) *In-Service Education within the School*. George Allen and Unwin, London.

Owens, R.G. (1981) *Organisational Behaviour in Education*, 2nd Edition, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

Power, C. (1981) Promoting the Professional Development of Experienced Teachers, *Unicorn*, 7 (2).

Purkey, S.C. and Smith, M.S. (1982) Too soon to cheer? Synthesis of research on effective schools. *Educational Leadership*, 40.

Reti, P. (1980) A Grid for Analysing Teachers' In-Service Needs, *British Journal of Inservice Education*, 6 (2).

Reti, P.G. (1982) Typology of In-Service Short Courses for Teachers, *British Journal of In-Service Education*, 8 (2).

Reynolds, R. and Clark, M.L. (1983) *In-Service Needs of Teachers and Administrators in Western Australian Schools.* Report No. 2. WACAE.

Reynolds, P. and Clark, M.L. (1982) *Perspectives on In-service Teacher Education.* Report One. An overview of the literature and current provisions in W.A. Western Australian Post-Secondary Education Commission.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ousten, J. and Smith, A. (1980) *Fifteen Thousand Hours*, Harvard University Press, Massachusetts.

Sergiovanni, T.J. and Starratt, R.J. (1983) *Supervision: Human Perspectives.* Third edition, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York.

Walberg, H.J. (1982) Educational climates. In Herbert J. Walberg (ed.) *Improving Educational Standards and Productivity.* McCutcheon, Berkeley.

Wilsey, C. and Killion, J. (1982) Making staff development programs work. *Educational Leadership*, 40 (1).

Wood, F.H., McQuarrie, F.O., Frank, O. and Thompson, S. (1982) Practitioners and professors agree on effective staff development practices. *Educational Leadership*, 40 (1).

Wood, F., McQuarrie, F.O. and Thompson, S.R. (1982) A National Assessment of Valued and Neglected Staff Development Practices. Pennsylvania State University. Paper presented to AERA Conference in Montreal, Canada.

Wood, F.H. and Thompson, S.R. (1980) Guidelines for Better Staff Development, *Educational Leadership*, 37 (5).

POLICIES FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE 1984 NATIONAL REVIEW OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Lawrence Ingvarson and Frank Coulter

Introduction

In 1983 the Commonwealth Schools Commission (CSC) and the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) were requested by the Minister for Education to conduct a joint review of teacher education in Australia. This chapter provides a background to that National Review of Teacher Education together with a summary of the findings and recommendations contained in the report *Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling: Roles and Responsibilities* (Coulter and Ingvarson 1985) which was prepared for the Schools Commission as part of its contribution to the joint National Review of Teacher Education.

The present Australian College of Education project on professional development is a recognition of the essential link, that must be strengthened, between the rhetoric of improving the quality of education and concrete, long-term policies for the coordinated funding of professional development. Earlier chapters in this book have reflected the clear findings from recent research on educational change that in-service education is crucial for the implementation of policies for improvement, regardless of whether those policies emanate from the school itself or governments. Several chapters illustrate the trend towards school-focused professional development or school improvement strategies and what is being learned about the complex political and organisational issues involved in putting them into practice.

No stronger need emerged from the submissions received and the information analysed in the course of our Review than the need to enhance the capacity of schools to plan their own long-term policies for professional development, based on locally identified curriculum priorities, and in order to make an effective response to changing Government priorities. No greater deficiency emerged from the Review than the inability of current Commonwealth and system-level professional development policies to provide the coordinated internal and external support which schools require to develop this capacity as a routine part of their operation.

Background to the Review

The National Review of Teacher Education was foreshadowed in the Commonwealth Government's 1983 Funding Guidelines (Department of Education and Youth Affairs 1983, 4) in the following terms:

> The Government considers that it is time to review arrangements and directions in respect of professional development of teachers. The Government believes that the important goal of enhancing the morale and effectiveness of teachers must be pursued in part through policies directed at improved professional development, both pre-service and in-service. Professional development currently is supported through the Schools Commission's program, and the very substantial allocations made by the Commonwealth for teacher education through the Tertiary Education Commission. Primary responsibility for the general support of the professional development of teachers rests with employing authorities and the profession itself. The Commonwealth's support in this area should in general be in pursuit of specific national objectives. The Government believes that insufficient attention has been given in recent years to defining and co-ordinating the relative roles and funding responsibilities of these various parties in professional development. Accordingly, it proposes that the Schools Commission and the Tertiary Education Commission should undertake a joint review of these matters and report to the Government in 1984.

These were ominous guidelines for those who worked with State and Regional In-Service Education Committees whose job it was to meet the strong demand for courses and school-focused development activities arising from locally identified needs. The question 'Who should pay, and for what, in the area of professional development?' had been raised in no uncertain terms. The guidelines reflected pressure that had been placed on the Department of Education and Youth Affairs to justify why the Commonwealth Government should be subsidising professional development costs for teachers. Did it provide this kind of support for other occupations? What returns did the Commonwealth gain from this investment both in terms of political benefit or recognition and in terms of identifiable educational outcomes?

Features of the Brief

The same guidelines set out the essential features of the brief for the Review which were that the Tertiary Education Commission and the Schools Commission should consult and prepare coordinated advice in 1984 on the direction, effectiveness and coordination of Commonwealth policies on the allocation of resources for improved pre-service and in-service teacher education, particularly as it relates to the Government's objectives in education (p13). This brief meant that the scope for the National Review was to be much broader than simply a review of the Schools Commission's Professional Development Program.

Aims of the Review

Within this brief the two Commissions prepared a more specific set of aims for the Review. There were five broad categories of aims. The first was directed toward an analysis of what had been accomplished by the most recent State and National Inquiries into Teacher Education. As the reports of these inquiries were published comparatively recently, it was considered important that account should be taken of their findings and an assessment made of the responses which had been made to their recommendations. The second and third categories of aims were concerned with the kinds and level of provision of pre-service and in-service teacher education, and with the level of coordination between the efforts of the various parties involved.

The fourth category focused on teacher development needs as they relate to the Commonwealth Government's educational priority areas. This included an assessment of teacher development needs implied by the Government's policy to increase student participation and equity in education, its Computer Education Program and its other educational programs in schools. The final category was concerned with reviewing the current roles of the two Commonwealth Education Commissions in relation to teacher education and with preparing advice on the need for coordination between the Commissions with respect to teacher development, including the possibility of establishing advisory and/or coordinating mechanisms between the two bodies. A general category was also included in the brief inviting advice on any other issues relating to teacher development which were relevant to the question of teacher quality.

It was agreed that the Schools Commission should concentrate on those areas which relate to the continuing professional development of teachers, particularly in-service activities which carry no formal credit for academic awards. This was because the Schools Commission had, since its inception in 1973, had a significant involvement in that aspect of teacher education through its Professional Development Program and other Specific Purpose Programs. It was agreed that the Tertiary Education Commission would focus on those aspects of the Review which related to the provision of 'award' courses at both the pre-service and post-experience levels.

Policy Changes

Although the two Education Commissions focused upon the particular aspects of teacher education for which they were presently responsible, they were mindful that teacher education is a continuous process whose various facets are closely linked and interdependent. Unfortunately, that interrelatedness of responsibility was not reflected as fully as it might have been in the conduct of the Review during 1984. The two Commissions followed parallel but largely separate paths in preparing their advice.

Before the review commenced, the 1983 Funding Guidelines made a cut of 40 per cent (from $17m to $10m) in funds allocated to the Professional Development Program (PDP) for 1984. Consistent with its new guidelines the Commonwealth Government re-allocated the $7m to two of its new Special Purpose Programs, Participation and Equity, and Computer Education, to meet their in-service education costs. In addition, the new guidelines (which arrived after State Government budgets for 1984 had been set) stipulated that State PDP committees could spend the money that they had left only in ways which were consistent with Commonwealth objectives in education: (twelve areas were specified on which PDP funds could be spent).

Without waiting for the outcome of a review, the Commonwealth Government had made the most dramatic shift in policy for the PDP in the history of the Program. State PDP Committees had lost most of their discretionary powers in the area of policy-making. The Program Guidelines for 1984 indicated that State in-service education committees were required no longer to play a responsive role in relation to topic areas for professional development activities, a role which the Schools Commission had encouraged over the previous ten years. Specifically, the new Guidelines required State Professional Development Committees to become agencies for supporting in-service activities related mainly to national objectives rather than agencies responding to needs determined by client groups such as schools, teacher associations, and employing authorities.

The new Commonwealth policy made the assumption that professional development needs related to its priorities were uniform across the States, and that States were similar in the degree to which they had, or had not, already done something about them. The perceived inflexibility of the new Guidelines meant that proposals for activities which were supported by strong local expressions of need, such as school leadership and managing student behaviour, could no longer be funded. This placed PDP committees in conflict with many groups of teachers and administrators whose activities had been supported in the past.

Decisions taken by the Commonwealth had, in effect, weakened further the limited capacity which State and regional PDP committees had to act as coordinators of professional development planning, both by reducing their funding and by removing their responsibilities to set priorities. Also, at the same time as national and State inquiries into teacher education, as well as the CSC itself, had been calling for better coordination of professional development planning and provision, the Commonwealth was fragmenting responsibility for professional development. It was doing this by establishing new categorical programs (Participation and Equity, Computer Education and, more recently, the Basic Learning in Primary Schools Program) with their own funding elements for teacher development. The task of those responsible for coordinating resources for professional development within employing authorities was not becoming any easier. Experience since 1973 has shown that State level Special Purpose Committees tended to function as independent entities with a strong sense of territoriality.

While the trend toward tying teacher development funding more closely to Special Purpose Programs was seen by the Commonwealth Government to be the most effective way of achieving its objectives and ensuring that the money reached its target groups, concern, if not confusion, was growing at system and school levels about the overlap in functions between the various

Special Purpose Program Committees, State PDP Committees, System In-Service Education Committees and, in some States, School Improvement Program Committees. It was possible for schools to make the same submission for funding to as many as four or five committees. Consultants might also come from as many different programs to work with schools and with as many different theories about change.

Perhaps the most worrying feature of these developments was the extent to which they reduced the likelihood that more effective, long-term designs for in-service could emerge. Several State PDP committees had developed policies for supporting school-focused in-service initiatives and were encouraging schools to formulate policies for professional development linked to school-defined curriculum needs. Another trend was the movement away from one-off short courses with little follow-up which experience and research was showing to be ineffective in helping teachers to actually implement new methods. Without coordinated *system-level* support, in terms of consultants and replacement time for example, it was unlikely that these two trends could prosper. The fragmentation of professional development policy-making amongst several special purpose programs was also reducing the likelihood that coordinated planning negotiation of longer-term specialist training courses and school-based consultancy work could take place.

Since 1975 funding for the PDP had dropped from approximately $30m to $10m (December 1983 prices), a decline of almost 66 per cent in real terms. As a proportion of total CSC grants, PDP funding had declined from over 3 per cent in 1975 to less than 0.8 per cent in 1984. Since the introduction of the PDP in 1974, Commonwealth Guidelines had indicated that one of the purposes of the program was to support the provision of appropriate in-service education activities for Schools Commission Special Purpose Programs and priority areas. In 1976 the PDP allocation was about 23 per cent of the total grant allocated for the Special Purpose Programs it was meant, in part, to serve. In 1984, when the Program Guidelines for that year now stipulated that the sole purpose of the program, with minor exceptions, was to support Commonwealth education objectives and Special Purpose Programs, *the PDP allocation was less than 5 per cent of the total funding of these programs*. This reduction in funding for the PDP (from 23 per cent to 5 per cent of the toal grant) had occurred over a period of time when, judging by recommendations from reviews of several Special Purpose Programs, such as ESL and Special Education, in-service education needs both in terms of specialised (long-term courses) training and school-focused approaches had intensified.

A new element which the Commonwealth Government Guidelines for 1984 had brought into the equation of who pays for what was the cost of post-initial teacher education through CTEC funding of award courses in university faculties of education and colleges of advanced education. Such courses, undeniably, comprise an important investment in professional development in Australia, and in 1983 the CTEC estimated that 30,000 of the 180,000 teachers in Australia were enrolled in award courses (an investment of between $60-$70m, based on 15,000 efts x $4500; efts = effective full time students). An interesting aspect of the introduction of this element into the discussion of funding responsibilities, together with the statement that the primary responsibility for the general support of professional development rests with the employing authorities and the profession itself, was that these reasons could have been used back in 1973 to justify not establishing the PDP in the first place. The Commonwealth Government was not only indicating that in its view higher degree and diploma courses in education could be more closely related to serving what it called national objectives; it was also making explicit that in its view some States had not been pulling their weight and had used Commonwealth PDP funds as a substitute for funds which they would have spent themselves in the absence of the PDP on their own priorities for in-service education. This is one of the perennial problems with categorical grants for special purpose programs. Had the PDP had the unintended effect of reducing what pressure there might have been for employing authorities to take up funding responsibilities for professional development? Had Commonwealth policy-making had the effect of reducing rather than stimulating professional development policy making within employing authorities at a time when, according to many State and national inquiries into teacher education, the crucial relationship between in-service education and serious policies to improve the quality of education was increasingly recognised.

This introductory section has given some of the background surrounding the National Review of Teacher Education which was conducted in 1984. The Review was to take place in the context of considerable flux and re-orientation of Commonwealth policy. The guidelines for 1984 from the new Labour Government had indicated its dissatisfaction with the current balance of funding responsibilities between the Commonwealth, employing authorities and the profession. It had indicated that it wanted the ageing Professional Development Program to be tied more closely to serving Commonwealth Government objectives rather than employer or teacher initiatives. And it had indicated that in the future the best way to support the professional development requirements of its Special Purpose Program was to build an element for that purpose into their funding allocations. At the same time the Commonwealth Government was indicating that it regarded 1984 as a transition year and that new approaches for allocating recurrent resources would be developed for 1985 and beyond.

The Government wished to give attention to more efficient strategies for enhancing the quality of schooling through Commonwealth funding. To provide advice on how this might be done it had appointed a Quality of Education Review Committee in August 1984, a temporary, alternative source of advice to the Schools Commission, to be chaired by Professor Peter Karmel. This Committee was to shape its advice in line with the Government's decision that the additional funds to be provided from 1985 through the General Recurrent Grants program (the additional funds, or 'betterment' money, represented about $18m (5.7%) of general recurrent grants for government schools in 1985 and $10.6m (1.8%) for non-government schools) would be provided on the basis of satisfactory resource agreements with State authorities. (Elements, which might be the subject of agreements, included class size, specialised resource teachers, professional development and cash grants to schools, amongst others). The Government was indicating that the increased general recurrent grants provided might be reallocated to special purpose programs or Government priority areas in order 'to ensure that its funding of schools is directed toward achieving a higher quality of education in primary and secondary schools' (p64).

The Schools Commission itself had submitted reports to the Government during 1984 which were very relevant to the Review of Teacher Education. In *Funding Policies for Australian Schools* (April 1984) the CSC introduced the concept of resource agreements partly out of concern that 'the Commonwealth's contribution to the general recurrent resources of government schools in most States lacks a specific focus' (p18). Based on submissions and information gathered, the authors of the Review came to hold the view that one specific focus for negotiating agreements should be professional development, a direct implication of the Government's stated commitment to improving the quality of education. Another concept developed in *Funding Policies for Australian Schools* was the 'Community Standard'. This provided a funding base for Commonwealth general recurrent grants that was derived from judgments about the basic educational needs of schools. Among the various elements included in the proposed standard, such as class sizes and teaching staff, were elements for staff and parent development. (Four days replacement per year and $10 per student respectively.) Most important for the Review were the principles which underpinned the setting of these resource standards. One of the five principles, for example, was 'Participation in the Exercise of Responsibility'. The Schools Commission expressed the view that

> Greater opportunity should be provided for individual school communities to initiate in decisions about resource use in schools within a given overall resource entitlement. This applies especially to decisions on the use of betterments. For schools in systems there are, and will continue to be, considerable benefits from the allocation of resources at the system level. However, it is highly desirable that where a centralised resource allocation model prevails, the community be given the opportunity to be involved in the policy process. (p7)

This principle became a central focus for the recommendations of the Review of Teacher Education. One obvious area where there could be a devolution to school level of resource allocation responsibility was that of professional development. Evidence from research and experience had indicated that the individual school is the basic unit of change and improvement in the quality of schooling. With discretionary resources the ability of schools to plan collaboratively their own long-term policies for professional development based on school-identified curriculum needs would be greatly enhanced. With such responsibility for decisions about the allocation of resources for staff and parent development the level of commitment, essential to real change, would be increased. If the objective of Commonwealth policy was for schools to accept responsibility for certain kinds of problems, then it seemed to the authors of the Review that Commonwealth policy must be used deliberately to stimulate policy-making at the school level through such enabling conditions. This is one of the fundamental lessons of research on the implementation of policy change. However, this perspective on empowering schools and allocating discretionary resources as part of a school's ordinary, routine annual budget runs counter to some aspects of the Special Purpose Program strategy for implementing change (using categorical grants). The Schools Commission had commissioned reviews of most of its Special Purpose Programs during 1984.

Findings of the Review

The findings of the Review were based upon an analysis of three major sources of information. Only a summary of those findings can be presented within this chapter. The three sources were the reports of the recent inquiries into teacher education, the documentation relating to the Commonwealth's Special Purpose Programs and Priority Areas, and data gathered from a survey of groups concerned with continuing professional development.

Recent Inquiries into Teacher Education

Each mainland State had conducted an inquiry into teacher education since 1978. The Commonwealth Minister for Education had commissioned a National Inquiry into Teacher Education (NITE) in 1978. In addition, an evaluation of the Professional Development Program commissioned by the CSC had reported in the same year (Batten 1978). Each inquiry was a major undertaking with broad terms of reference, including pre- and in-service education with the analysis of contemporary and future social trends.

There was a high degree of unanimity in the recommendation of the inquiries, particularly the need for a much greater investment in ongoing in-service education during a teacher's career. The reports also stressed the need for higher quality pre-service programs and most recommended that four years be the minimum period of initial training. All called for more support for research and development in teacher education and evaluation of programs.

Little had happened, however, that was a direct result of the National and State Inquiries: a sobering finding for the present Review. Hopes that, with the problem of teacher supply largely resolved, greater attention could now be given to the enhancement of teacher quality and school improvement were not fulfilled.

A significant factor influencing the lack of implementation was the belief that more than sufficient resources had been directed to pre-service teacher education, as witnessed by the oversupply of teachers at that time. A major thrust of the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission's policy for the 1982-84 triennium was that teacher education enrolments would be restricted to approximate predicted teacher need, and that the funds so released would be used to maintain enrolments in higher education at their existing levels. The expansion of new programs in technology, science, and business studies was to be facilitated by a reduction in the level of teacher education. This policy was in conflict with many of the NITE Report's recommendations. Given this shift in higher education policy, it is understandable that the CTEC did not give strong support for, or assume direct responsibility for, implementing the major recommendations of the Report of the NITE.

In summary, a basic reason why little substantive change followed the inquiries was that neither the Commonwealth nor individual State Governments saw the implementation of their widely applauded recommendations as its particular responsibility. In other words the inquiries did not effectively address the question of how the responsibilities of the various parties might be defined, especially in the area of continuing professional development, nor how their contributions might be coordinated more effectively. These were the issues of central concern to the 1984 National Review of Teacher Education.

Implications for Teacher Development Arising from the Commonwealth's Special Purpose Programs and Priority Areas

A second source of information for the Review were the policy statements of the CSC relating to its Special Purpose Programs and priority areas. Since its inception in 1973 the Schools Commission had used categorical grants as a strategy to direct the attention of school and system authorities to certain target groups such as the disadvantaged, ethnic schools, the disabled, and the isolated. It has also provided block grants (through the General Recurrent Grants Program) aimed not only at assisting the school and system authorities to operate at acceptable standards of recurrent resources, but also at underpinning the Commonwealth's specific purpose initiatives and other priority areas such as the education of girls, Aboriginal education and parent participation.

Part of the brief for the Review was to examine

- the kind of provision for teacher development needed to support Special Purpose Programs and the priority areas;
- the extent to which appropriate teacher development was being provided;
- the means by which in-service education might be better coordinated in the future to support Commonwealth Programs and priority areas.

Fortunately for the Review, most of the Special Purpose Programs had individually been the subject of recent Reviews and this material, together with policy documents of the Schools Commission, formed the main basis for the analysis of teacher development needs.

In summary, the reviewers of Programs (*e.g.* Ashby and Taylor 1984; Campbell and McMeniman 1984; Cahill *et al.* 1984) identified in-service education as crucial if the Programs were to make any difference to what was done at the school level. The need for two main types of in-service education provision stood out in particular; that which focused on furthering the specialist skills of individual teachers (*e.g.* in ESL *(English as Second Language)*, Special Ed.) through medium to long-term courses usually requiring study leave; and that which focused on strengthening the capacity of the school to respond and to incorporate a particular Program's objectives into an overall curriculum and staff development policy developed by the school community. Both types of in-service raised issues for the provision of resources which could be effectively addressed only by the coordinated commitment of employing authorities, the Schools Commission, and the teaching profession itself.

In every priority area, whether it was Aboriginal Education, Computer Education or Multicultural Education, a need was identified by the reviews for medium (one term at least) or long-term courses to provide individual teachers or consultants with specialist training that would help them to play a leading role in the development of relevant programs in schools. For some priority areas, such as ESL, the need appeared to be critical. Short in-service activities had a place in sharing ideas and information but they were seen as inadequate preparation for new, specialised teaching responsibilities. For example, the total Commonwealth funding for the ESL Program in 1984 was about $57m (most of which was used for paying the salaries of about 1,700 ESL teachers). Campbell and McMeniman's (1984) review of the ESL Program indicated a shortage of specialist ESL teachers. The Review of Teacher Education showed that $167,000 was allocated to ESL from the emaciated Professional Development Program and less than this from the ESL Program itself. In other words, *investment in training, or retraining, was less than half of one per cent of outlays for operating the Program,* enough only to provide one term full-time courses for about thirty teachers. A similar situation applied to other programs, apart from PEP and Computer Education which have professional development elements included in their funding.

It was also clear from the reviews of Special Purpose Programs that specialist training was insufficient. In-service education resources were needed *within* schools which would enable staff to work through the implications of the particular programs for the school as a whole and thereby identify the professional development requirements arising from the need to integrate program objectives across the curriculum. It was clear that these enabling conditions for professional development, such as time, money and expertise, needed to be built into the normal recurrent funding and staffing allocations of schools. These enabling conditions were seen as necessary, not only in order that schools might better assimilate and implement current Commonwealth objectives, but so that they might be better prepared to make a response to future national priorities as well as needs that are of local significance.

One implication of these Reviews is the need to recognise that, in a sense, educational improvement is fundamentally a local enterprise: change comes, if it comes at all, from within. It is characteristic of Commonwealth Programs that the knowledge required for their success does not lie in the program policies themselves, despite the powerful rhetoric for equity and reform. Nor does it lie in the heads of the policy-makers or those who administer the programs. Policy statements such as 'break the cycle of deprivation and improve the educational achievement of disadvantaged children', or 'develop a curriculum which will foster more equal outcomes of schooling' are not accompanied usually by suggestions about how the policy might be implemented successfully. The knowledge required to make these programs succeed resides, if it exists at all, with the people who teach and administer schools. The issue of teacher education needs arising from Commonwealth policies may therefore be better defined in terms of how to mobilise the knowledge and cooperative effort of practitioners in the service of policy objectives. It is for this reason that such heavy emphasis is given in the recommendations to directing resources to the school level.

Another implication from the review in relation to Commonwealth priorities is the need to reappraise the ways in which tertiary institutions might become more directly involved in school-focused curriculum and teacher development. This issue is also taken up in greater detail in the recommendations.

In summary, a factor which has contributed to the limited provision of pre-service and in-service opportunities for teachers in the priority areas has been the separation of Special Purpose Program planning from planning for relevant professional development. More attention needs to be given to the condition affecting the implementation of change in schools. There is a need to analyse in greater detail the knowledge and skills which teachers will require and the appropriate strategies for acquiring them before the launching of new Special Purpose Programs, as has been done in the case of the Computer Education Program. In terms of the brief for the Review the analysis of Special Purpose Programs pointed to the need for three levels of professional development policy-making and coordination in relation to Commonwealth priorities: the individual school, the system, and the Commonwealth levels.

Survey of Professional Development

The third source of information for the Review was data gathered in a comprehensive survey of education authorities and groups concerned with in-service education in Australia.

During 1984, surveys were conducted across all States and Territories in order to gather information about current levels of funding for professional development and views concerning the coordination of Commonwealth, system authority and teaching profession responsibilities. System authorities, State PDP committees, and parent, teacher, and principal organisations were included in the surveys. The information gathered was very extensive and only a section of the findings can be presented here. Full details can be found in the Report to the Schools Commission (Coulter and Ingvarson 1985).

Funding

Since 1973 the Commonwealth Schools Commission has played a significant role in the funding of professional development for teachers. However, as was indicated earlier, its contribution through the Professional Development Program has declined steadily over recent years. Table 1 sets out the State Government and Commonwealth levels of funding. The categories of costs included were: payments for replacement or relief teachers; salaries for the administration of professional development; study leave awards and teacher exchange; payments to tertiary institutions for award and non-award courses; teachers' centres; consultants; and course costs; other than those covered by the previous categories.

Table 1. Funding for Professional Development[1]
($'000, estimated December 1983 prices)

	1977	1980	1983	1984
NSW	n.a.	n.a.	11,168	14,176
Vic.	40,158	25,316	19,617	14,444
Qld.*	11,969	8,549	9,800	10,650
WA	873	1,530	2,573	2,401
SA	n.a.	7,433	6,437	6,300
Tas.	1,714	1,530	2,573	1,980
NT	n.a.	2,695	2,673	2,727
ACT	n.a.	n.a.	2,638	2,983
Total	—	—	56,795	55,660
Commonwealth PDP[2]	29,536	18,180	17,989	10,611

1. Excludes professional development expenditure by offices of Catholic Education and Independent Schools from their funds.
2. Excludes:
(a) Commonwealth funding for award courses in tertiary institutions which in 1984 was estimated by the CTEC to be of the order of $62m (15,500 students x $4,500).
(b) Commonwealth funding for the Education Centres Program and the Schools Exchange and Travel Scheme ($2.4m).
(c) Spending on professional development from Specific Purpose Program funds.

The estimated State and Territory investments in professional development are conservative. They do not include the salaries of desk-bound staff in Curriculum and Research branches, staff concerned with student welfare and guidance or the salaries of senior education officers with fractional responsibilities for professional development. Their inclusion would have doubled at least the estimates of State expenditure. Funding from Offices of Catholic Education was approximately $16m in 1983. Information from non-systemic schools was not gathered. Table 1 shows that State and Territory contributions to professional development in 1983 were about four times the grant for the Commonwealth's Professional Development Program. In 1984 the ratio had changed to about seven-to-one. It is, of course, not possible to say what an appropriate ratio of State the Commonwealth funding would be, but at least a detailed estimate of the funding situation had been made for the first time.

The marked decline in funding for Victoria and South Australia over the 1977-84 period is mainly attributable to a sharp reduction in the number of study leave awards (*e.g.* from 1,000 to 150 in Victoria).

Table 2 provides a more detailed breakdown of funding for 1984. There are marked variations between the States in funding for replacement, or emergency, teachers, consultants, and the costs of courses. The most notable area of increased expenditure across most States was for consultants. In 1984 it was about half the State and Territory investment in professional development but, like professional development generally, funding for this kind of support fluctuates from year to year.

It is worth commenting that the gathering of this information was not a straightforward task. We gained the impression that for several system authorities it was the first time that expenditures related to professional development had been brought together as a distinguishable budget or resource allocation. (We also gained the impresson that the scale of investment by most system authorities was greater than that for which the Commonwealth had given them credit). It was clear, in other words, that most system authorities did not have a policy or an overview of their investment in professional development or school improvement. This was an important finding for the Review because it made little sense to call for greater coordination of Commonwealth and system authority roles and responsibilities if, in the first place, system authorities did not have their own specific professional development policies with which the Commonwealth could coordinate. A professional development policy is about much more than the provision of short in-service courses. It is concerned with how an employer plans over the long term to make the most of its most important human resource, teachers. Decisions about the allocations of key resources to professional development, such as study leave, replacement staff numbers, consultants, curriculum coordinators, course costs and curriculum branches are all relevant to such a policy, but were apparently being made independently of each other in separate sections of system authority bureaucracies.

Table 2. Provision for Inservice Education 1984

($'000 in December 1983 prices)

State/Territory Funding (Government Projected)

	N.S.W.	Victoria	Queensland	W.A	S.A	Tas.	N.T.	A.C.T.	Total
(i) Teacher replacement and relief for non-award in service	1,869 (13%)	3,235 (22%)	1,370 (13%)	35 (2%)	860 (14%)	341 (17%)	140 (5%)	600 (20%)	8,450
(ii) Staffing for inservice administration and support	1,607 (11%)	950 (7%)	1,332 (13%)	1,010 (42%)	1,000 (16%)	464 (23%)	150 (5.5%)	310 (10.5%)	6,823
(iii) Study leave awards and teacher exchange	3,166 (22%)	3,306 (23%)	1,113 (10%)	70 (3%)	160 (3%)	- (0%)	100 (14.5%)	374 (12.5%)	8,289
(iv) Contributions to courses in tertiary institutions	30 (0.2%)	25 (0.2%)	59 (0.6%)	1.5 (.06%)	- (0%)	67 (3%)	- (0%)	430 (14.5%)	612
(v) Funding for Teachers' Centres	- (0%)	925 (6%)	506 (5%)	79 (3%)	30 (0.5%)	211 (11%)	100 (3.5%)	336 (11%)	2,187
(vi) Consultants	5,954 (42%)	5,254 (36%)	5,230 (49%)	936 (39%)	4,250 (67.5%)	781 (39%)	2,100 (77%)	871 (29%)	25,376
(vii) Costs of activities/courses	1,553 (11%)	747 (5%)	1,039 (10%)	270 (11%)	- (0%)	116 (6%)	137 (5%)	61 (2%)	3,923
Total $	14,179 (100%)	14,442 (100%)	10,650 (100%)	2,401 (100%)	6,300 (100%)	1,980 (100%)	2,727 (100%)	2,982 (100%)	55,661
Estimated number of govt. teachers	46,676	41,589	20,878	12,076	14,498	4,999	1,596	2,681	144,157
Estimated expenditure per teacher ($)	303	347	510	198	434	396	1,708	1,112	386(Av)
Commonwealth Funding (PDP)									
• Commonwealth PDP	3,700	2,662	2,015	904	860	273	139	108	10,661
• Education Centres									2,273
• Schools Exchange & Travel Scheme									171
Total									$ 13,104

Table 2 shows that the annual investment in professional development ranges from about $200 per teacher in one State to more than $1,000 per teacher in the two Territories. The Australian Capital Territory has a staffing allocation to cover replacement costs and the Northern Territory has high costs associated with travel (by plane) for teachers to attend in-service education activities.

Another fact which emerged from the survey on funding was the contribution which teachers themselves made to the overall costs of professional development. In-service education in teachers' own time (out of school hours) accounted for 35 per cent of the total in-service days. This represented a contribution equivalent to about $24 million (based on days provided *in* school time, excluding full-time release for award courses). The combined Commonwealth PDP and State contribution was about $16 million for teacher relief which covered only a little more than one-third of the cost of that *in* school time. This meant that teacher contributions by taking extra supervision and teaching responsibilities contributed, at a conservative estimate, the equivalent of a further $28 million to in-service costs. In total, therefore, the contribution of teachers to the total cost of in-service, through the use of their own time and extra teaching duties, amounted to an estimated $52 million. It is the most significant single element in the overall pattern of in-service education expenditure. (This also excludes the contribution being made by approximately 30,000 teachers who are doing part-time studies for award courses.) It would be interesting to know how many other occupations make this level of contribution to their own professional development.

Responsibility

The survey indicated that uncertainty about the respective responsibilities for professional development of the Commonwealth, system authorities and the profession itself had grown over recent years. Across all the State and Territory responses, no common view emerged which might have formed a basis for sharing or demarcating funding responsibilities.

There was a consensus that the Commonwealth should provide a broad framework of purposes and enabling guidelines, developed in close consultation with teacher organisations and employing authorities, when its funds were involved.

However, consistent with what has been said in the previous section on funding, employers themselves produced disappointingly vague statements when asked about their own responsibilities and purposes for professional development. There is clearly a need for teacher organisations and employing authorities to negotiate their own agreements in this area before Commonwealth-State negotiated agreements can be fully productive. This is an area in which the existing inter-systemic State PDP committees are impotent. They do not have the power or the responsibility to undertake such negotiations. Their responsibility is largely limited to allocating funds to cover course costs. They cannot initiate system-level policy-making about the full range of resources relevant to professional development.

To varying degrees across the States and Territories the existence of State PDP committees, marginal to system administrations, appears to have had the unintended effect of reducing what pressure there might have been over recent years, when the need for ISE has intensified, for employing authorities to look at professional development on a whole system basis requiring concrete agreements with unions and stable proportions of recurrent expenditure. As one system authority stated in their response to the Review, 'We gave the responsibility for funding in-service courses to the Commonwealth in 1973'. Such a point of view indicated that the PDP had appeared to replace rather than stimulate professional development policy-making within that system.

It was apparent that any permanent resolution to the problem of responsibility must therefore involve the establishment of a closer link between Commonwealth and State effort in professional development, and an administrative structure which integrated that dual commitment. In addition the multiplicity of committees and administrative structures set up by the Commonwealth to service the teacher development needs of their programs tended to inhibit such integration with existing State/Territory in-service structures. It is for this reason that the recommendations were directed towards the establishment of coordinating structures which would have the capacity to:

a. integrate State and Commonwealth effort through a single professional development unit within each system employing authority, and to
b. confer on that unit the responsibility for overall planning and coordination of professional development within that system, including that which relates to Specific Purpose Programs of the Commonwealth.

This implies that the responsibility for professional development would reside with a central professional development committee and its regional committees for each system. This would replace the existing arrangements which confer that responsibility on as many as ten committees, in addition to the inter-systemic professional development committees, with associated problems of overlap and duplication of effort. It was expected that such coordinating committees would develop policy guidelines for the deployment of all the major resources related to professional development as outlined in the earlier section on funding.

Coordination

Respondents to the survey commented extensively and strongly on matters related to the coordination of Commonwealth and State roles in professional development during 1983 and 1984. The strength of their responses stemmed from: the perceived inflexibility of 1984 PDP Guidelines, which stipulated that PDP funds could be used only for Commonwealth priorities; the lack of consultation and opportunities to participate in planning and priority setting during 1983 before the policy was changed; and the lack of sufficient lead time or forewarning before State PDP committees were expected to change their mode of operation. In short, respondents shared a concern that any semblance of coordination between the Commonwealth and State agencies in planning priorities for inservice education had broken down over the past year.

The undermining of morale and initiative in the PDP was a matter of some concern. Respondents conveyed the impression that their former planning efforts and the practices developed over time had been treated as worthless, that there was not much point to the program now. A program with only centrally determined priorities, with which local groups were expected to comply, conveyed the implicit message that Commonwealth-State coordination of planning was regarded as unimportant or pointless. It also implied that, in the absence of Commonwealth direction, attention and action would not be directed by employers and teachers to important areas of need. Once again the important point is that Commonwealth strategies can stimulate local policy-making and initiative with respect to professional development, or discourage it. Recent Commonwealth strategies, in the view of respondents, appeared to have had the latter effect.

Several State employing authorities indicated that they were in the process of encouraging the shift in emphasis of the PDP in the direction of school-focused professional development by providing guidelines and funding for what they variously called: 'School Development Programs' (SA); 'The Total School Development Program' (NSW); and 'School Improvement Programs' (Tasmania). Confusion and uncertainty had arisen recently because State PDP committees were unclear whether their support for school-focused activities was consistent with the Commonwealth Guidelines for 1984. In fact, some regional committees in Victoria ceased funding development proposals from single schools based on their interpretation of the Reviews of Commonwealth programs (and the guidelines of programs such as PEP) emphasise the importance of the school as a focus for support.

However, it became clear in the course of the review that the problem of Commonwealth-State coordination could not be satisfactorily resolved by tinkering with the existing PDP consultative machinery. The kind of coordination required can be provided only by system authorities who undeniably have the responsibility for professional development policy, or what is sometimes inelegantly referred to as 'human resource management'. This position means that, perhaps to a greater extent than has happened in the past, systems might look at ways of defining professional development needs and policies in terms of system-level objectives and plans for school improvement. It has not been uncommon in some systems, for example, for curriculum development project teams, in whose work several hundred thousand dollars may have been invested, to find that the essential, and equally large professional development resources they need in order to enable teachers to make effective use of their ideas and materials are either unavailable, or available only in the form of small amounts for one-off short courses from inter-systemic professional development committees disbursing Commonwealth funds. The current strategy of tying professional development elements to transient Special Purpose Programs will undermine rather than promote system-level coordinated planning and thereby put at risk the long-term implementation of Commonwealth priorities. Under the current situation there is little inclination for system authorities to coordinate their resource allocations closely with inter-systemic PDP committees when they cannot ensure that the policies of such committees will integrate well with their own priorities. Once again the implication was that inter-systemic State PDP committees should be replaced by system-level professional development committees with the authority and responsibility to coordinate all the major resource allocations related to professional development.

Implications for Policy and Recommendations

A number of concerns about the current arrangements for the coordination and funding of professional development have been outlined in this chapter. What these concerns implied for policy, however, was a matter for interpretation, based in part upon the Review team's assumptions and values. Before outlining the recommendations of the Review it is important, therefore, to make as explicit as possible the underlying assumptions and principles which shaped them. These principles and assumptions were that

a. *Teachers are the most important educational resource possessed by our school systems*

This implies a need for employing authorities and teacher organisations to develop explicit funding policies for developing and nurturing that resource over the long-term of a teacher's career;

b. *There is a need for greater teacher participation at all levels in policy-making and decisions about their own professional development*

This is essential if the degree of commitment from teachers and teachers' organisations necessary for its effectiveness is to be generated. Inservice education is not something that is done to teachers.

It is a vehicle for enhancing the autonomy and professional self-esteem of teachers, as well as a means of improving the level of teaching skill and competence.

c. *There is a close link between quality of education and the quality of teaching, which is enhanced by on-going professional development*

If Commonwealth, system or school policy is to lead to change it must be through what teachers do, how they do it, and what it *means* to them. Every inquiry and review over the past decade has recognised this, but their recommendations have been largely ignored and funding for professional development has in fact declined. The time has come to act on their recommendations and to recognise that talk about improving the quality of education is empty rhetoric if it is not accompanied by concrete funding policies which give professional development a higher priority. As long as there is a need for improvement in education, there will be a need for professional development.

d. *Responsibility for the funding and provision of professional development is one which is shared between the profession itself, employers and the Commonwealth, and, effective coordination of roles and responsibilities for inservice education is dependent upon a clearer delineation and acceptance of responsibilities by the major parties involved*

It was clear from the Review that as the Commonwealth has a concern with improving *both* the general quality of teaching and the implementation of its *special* programs it should make a substantial commitment to professional development. As there will always be a need for professional development it should therefore be supported by a set percentage of *recurrent* funds as well as by funds directed to special programs.

State and Territory employing authorities should provide the major proportion of funding because, as employers they have the primary responsibility for sustaining and improving the quality of education in their schools.

The underlying principle of shared responsibility implies that a major priority area within Commonwealth-system authority negotiated resource agreements should be professional development. Effective professional development requires long-term planning and therefore the shared financial commitment of the Commonwealth system authorities should be on-going, stable, and predictable.

e. *Commonwealth initiatives will be more effectively implemented over the long-term if they build upon and integrate with existing employing authority support systems and initiatives, rather than lead to 'marginal', inter-systemic or temporary administrative support systems. This is especially the case for continuing priority areas such as professional development.*

It is believed that Commonwealth policy will be most effective when it stimulates, rather than replaces, policy-making and long-term planning for professional development at the system level *and* the school level. This implies the need to transfer responsibility from existing inter-systemic State PDP and Special Purpose Program committees to new system-level professional development coordinating committees with a responsibility for planning the coordinated allocation of the wide range of system resources related to professional development. Such a move would also be designed to overcome the limited conception of professional development which equates it mainly with short in-service courses alone. The precise nature of such policies would be, of course, the subject of employer, teacher union and parent organisation negotiated agreements related to system priorities.

f. *An enhanced capacity within schools is necessary for staff and parents to make long-term plans for professional development relevant both to curriculum needs they have identified and to the successful implementation of Commonwealth and employing authority priority programs.*

This is one of the central principles underlying the recommendations of the Review. No clearer conclusions emerged from this Review than that the successful implementation of any education program depends upon the cooperative participation of the school community in the identification of needs and priorities and in the planning of a long term professional development program to meet those needs. It was equally clear that current mechanisms for funding professional development were ill-suited to meeting this need.

An impediment to moving toward a funding strategy focused on promoting in-service education as part of a carefully considered school policy is the isolation of the present inter-systemic Professional Development Program Committees. By their very nature and level of funding they are able only to deal with a small part of the general planning and allocation of resources which would be relevant to stimulating school-based professional development planning.

Such planning required the coordinated provision of resources and support structures *both internal and external to the school.* The major parties in this coordination of support would be employing authorities, teacher and parent organisations, and the Commonwealth Schools Commission. The minimum elements of internal support which schools would require to develop and implement policies and plans for professional development appear to be time, a 'development fund' and provision for a curriculum/staff coordinator through a time allowance built into the staffing formula. Details of these resources, and how they might be provided and used are given in Chapter 7 of the Review.

These discretionary resources would be allocated to each school as part of its annual recurrent funding (in much the same way as schools might receive routine allocations for equipment or materials). The purpose would be to place a capacity for exercising responsibility for professional development where it can be effectively utilised for the benefit of the school, and where it would engender wider school commitment through greater participation in its planning. Schools would be held accountable for developing a policy for on-going professional development. A representative committee, such as the curriculum committee of the school, would plan ahead for the effective use of the school's developmental resources. Teachers and parents wishing to attend short courses would apply for support to such a committee. In a sense, this situation would place the buying power for professional development in the hands of school communities. There is no reason to believe that, in itself, the placement in schools will affect the ability of short courses to go ahead if they can attract applicants and meet needs identified at the school level.

A number of concerns which might be raised about the principle of directing discretionary funding for professional development to the school community level are raised and answered in the Review. It is worth mentioning that this principle is in line with current practice in some systems, although inadequately resourced as yet.

g. *The resources for educational research in universities and colleges can be used in more effective ways for professional development if in-service education and educational research are regarded as inter-dependent. The collaborative involvement of teachers with tertiary institution staff in attacking real educational problems that they face is an important avenue for professional development.*

It was clear from the Review that there was a need for greater coordination between the two Commonwealth Education Commissions so that tertiary institution resources and courses might better complement the teacher education requirements of Commonwealth priority areas. Special emphasis was placed on increasing the capacity of tertiary institutions to integrate their resources with the overall planning and provisions of in-service education, both through short and medium term courses, and school-based consultancy of an on-going nature. There was also a need to allow more flexibility so that medium-term courses (one term or semester full-time study or one year part-time study) could be credited toward a qualification.

It was also recommended that limited term categorical funding be provided to assist tertiary institutions to establish professional development programs relevant to new educational priority areas (such as Computer Education).

h. *There is not a need for a great expansion in the quantity of in-service education but there is a need for more effective approaches to be used. The time it takes to learn new teaching skills, to change attitudes and to successfully implement change has been underestimated. Too many activities are short, one-off events isolated from problems arising from practice and the kind of supportive follow-up required to integrate changes into routine practice.*

While there will always be a need for short courses which are planned on a State or regional basis it needs to be recognised that they are capable of achieving only limited objectives. One reason why the one-off short course is still the most common form of in-service education is that the present isolated inter-systemic PDP committees have limited authority to coordinate the human resources required for more effective designs for professional development. This should not be taken to imply that short courses for teachers or parents are not of crucial importance when planning strategies for change. The point is rather that short courses alone, isolated from supportive policies at the school level and sustained external support (*e.g.* from consultants) during implementation are unlikely to lead to changes in practice.

Recommendations

The specific recommendations which were made to the Commonwealth Schools Commission by the Review team are listed below. They reflect the concern of the Review that professional development effort be more effectively coordinated between the various bodies involved, including tertiary institutions, that it be placed on a more stable and predictable footing, and that an appropriate balance be established between support for system-level activities and support at the level of schools and their immediate communities. The following recommendations are therefore grouped according to their emphasis on coordination (recommendations 1 and 2); their emphasis on funding at various levels (recommendation 3); and their emphasis on how the tertiary sector might coordinate its efforts more effectively with other agencies (recommendation 4).

Recommendation Concerning Coordination at the Commonwealth Level

1. A joint committee on teacher education should be established, representative of the two Commonwealth Education Commissions, State/Territory employing authorities, and national teacher and parent organisations, with responsibility for
   a. planning and coordinating support for teacher education related to national educational objectives;
   b. providing an avenue for regular consultation between the Commonwealth and the State and Territory Professional Development Coordinating Committees;
   c. assisting the two Commissions in providing the Minister with advice on current and emerging professional development needs;
   d. monitoring the adequacy and effectiveness of current provision for professional development.

Recommendations Concerning Coordination at the State/Territory Level

2.1 State/Territory Coordinating Committees on professional development should be established *within each system employing authority* with responsibility for:
   a. overall policy development, planning and resource allocation for professional development and school improvement in relation to Commonwealth and system priority areas and curriculum programs;
   b. liaison with tertiary institutions on matters relating to the provision of award and non-award courses serving Commonwealth and system educational priorities;

c. coordinating system consultancy and advisory services where they relate to professional development and school improvement for both Commonwealth and system priority areas and curriculum programs;

d. establishing guidelines for the expenditure of funds disbursed to Regional Professional Development Coordinating Committees for professional development and school improvement;

e. other responsibilities as directed, for example, by the State Minister for Education.

2.2 System Coordinating Committees on Professional Development should replace the existing committee structures and thereby integrate the in-service roles and responsibilities presently carried out by the State Professional Development Program Committees; system-level in-service committees and the several Special Purpose Programs Committees. (It is recognised that the proportion of Special Purpose Program funds allocated for professional development will vary according to the stage and nature of the program, and also that in the short term some continuing programs, whose funds are wholly recurrent, should continue to be supported entirely from the Professional Development Program.)

2.3 System and Regional Coordinating Committees should be representative of teachers, parents, and employers. (Some systems might decide to add representation from the tertiary system.)

2.4 Each System and Regional Coordinating Committee should assume responsibility for monitoring the adequacy and effectiveness of its policies, and for producing annual accounts of expenditure.

Recommendation Concerning Funding for Professional Development

3.1 The existing Commonwealth Professional Development Program should continue to support the teacher development needs relating to Commonwealth programs and priorities.

3.2 To strengthen this support in a manner consistent with the recommendations of the recent reviews of Special Purpose Programs, a proportion of categorical funds associated with each Special Purpose Program should be designated for professional development. The designated proportions should be determined by the Commonwealth Joint Committee in consultation with system employing authorities.

3.3 Those program funds should, in the first instance, be directed to the relevant State Priority Program Committee (or the Joint Committee where relevant), and then the element designated for professional development should be directed to the relevant System Coordinating Committee for Professional Development.

3.4 The responsibility for professional development is one which should continue to be shared by the Commonwealth, the employing authorities and the profession itself, and

3.5 the Commonwealth's financial commitment to that shared responsibility should be directed to in-service education relevant to specific priority areas and also to the general enhancement of the quality of schooling in order that there be a national teaching force which is capable of responding flexibly and effectively to changing educational needs and priorities.

3.6 In order that the Commonwealth may continue to support the efforts of employing authorities in improving the overall quality of the teaching profession consideration should be given to allocating a proportion of the Schools Commission's General Recurrent Grant under one of the following two options. (The rationale for these options is provided in more detail in Chapter 7 of the Review.)

3.6 1. *(Option 1)* Resource agreements negotiated between the Commonwealth and the States/Territories systems authorities whereby an element of the additional funds provided through the Commonwealth General Recurrent Grant be designated from 1986 onwards for professional development under a matching arrangement until a Commonwealth contribution of $22.35m[*] is reached by 1988, thereafter to be maintained at the same level.[**]

3.6 2. *(Option 2)* Resource agreements negotiated between the Commonwealth and the States/Territories systems authorities as a result of which an element of the additional funds provided through the Commonwealth General Recurrent Grant is designated from 1986 onwards for professional development at a level commensurate with that recommended in Option 1.

3.7 At least 75 per cent of the element for professional development within the Commonwealth Recurrent Grant should be directed to schools as a school development fund disbursed through System and Regional Coordinating Committees under guidelines negotiated between the Commonwealth and the States/Territories systems.

[*] Based on 5% ($17.7m for government schools and 0.75% ($4.65m) for non-government schools. The details of the matching grant formula for State/Territory contributions would be a matter for individual Commonwealth–State negotiation, but in order to maintain the current levels of overall State/Territory investment in professional development the system authority contribution to a matching grant agreement would need to be approximately 1.5% of recurrent expenditure on teaching staff salaries.

[**] This element within the Recurrent Grant might be designated for areas such as course costs, *in-service* replacement costs up to 25 per cent of this element, and consultancy costs.

3.8 Consistent with the principle of shared responsibility it is suggested that employing authorities should also contribute to school-focused professional development by providing:

- an additional element toward the school development fund;
- a set number of in-service replacement days per year for each teacher and/or a set number of pupil-free days per year;
- a time allowance within staffing formulae to permit a staff member to take responsibilities for staff/curriculum development coordination.

Under Option 1 the nature and level of these system contributions would be the subject of the negotiations between the Commonwealth and the systems.

Recommendations on In-Service Education Provision within the Tertiary Sector

4.1 With the aim of increasing the capacity of tertiary institutions to respond flexibly to teacher development needs, it is recommended that the CTEC be requested to explore ways in which tertiary institutions may be funded to provide:

a. single units of study for teachers wishing to add to or upgrade their basic qualifications;

b. term or semester-length postgraduate programs which might be subsumable under a full-length postgraduate diploma or degree;

c. easier access to upgrading courses for two and three year trained teachers;

d. increased participation by tertiary institution staff in non-award in-service activities through the establishment of a non-award student load formula.

A proportion of Tertiary Education Commission funds should be allocated as categorical funding. These should be limited term funds designated for specific programs in new educational priority areas thereby providing tertiary institutions with additional flexibility to respond to changes in school curricula.

Final Comment

An interim joint report was sent to the Minister early in 1985 and the individual reports to the CSC and to the CTEC have been circulated amongst the major interest groups and institutions for reaction and comment. At the stage of preparing this chapter (June 1985) it is expected that the two Commissions will prepare a final joint report. The final joint recommendations will need to be formulated in the context of the recommendations of the 'blue ribbon' Quality of Education Review Committee appointed by the Minister for Education in September, 1984 and chaired by Professor Peter Karmel. Its brief, to look closely at the outcomes of schooling to see what the problems are, will mean that it too must examine professional development roles and responsibilities, particularly in relation to national objectives and special purpose programs.

It became clear during the course of the Review that, although there is a need to maintain high quality pre-service teacher education programs, there is a pressing need for more systematic programs of continuing professional development. Years of teacher shortage served to focus the attention of teacher educators on the pre-service phase. Now the vast majority of teachers are in the profession, and many will remain there for several decades, the question of *continuing* professional development is considered by the authors as being of far greater significance than is generally acknowledged by either the Commonwealth or the system employing authorities.

References

Ashby, G. and Taylor, J. (1984) *Responses to Policies: Review of Commonwealth Schools Commission Special Education Program*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra, October.

Batten, M. (1979) *Report of a National Evaluation of the Development Program*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Cahill, D. *et al.* (1984) *Review of the Commonwealth Multicultural Education Program*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra, November.

Campbell, W.J. and McMeniman, M. (1984) *The English as a Second Language (ESL) Factors and Index Study*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

Commonwealth Schools Commission (1984) *Funding Policies for Australian Schools*, Canberra, April.

Coulter, F. and Ingvarson, L. (1985) *Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling: Roles and Responsibilities*. (A Report to the Commonwealth Schools Commission for the National Review of Teacher Education.) Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra, February.

Department of Education and Youth Affairs (1983) *Participation and Equity. Funding Guidelines to the Commonwealth Education Commission for 1984*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.

SUPPORT SERVICES

George F. Berkeley

Introduction

Curriculum projects involving teachers result in teacher development; curriculum projects involving several or all teachers in the one school result in school improvement; curriculum projects lead to improved teaching, more effective use of resources and more effective student learning. Or do they? Does the improvement and effectiveness depend on particular conditions? Merely providing the services may not ensure worthwhile change.

Some of the assumptions underlying curriculum development projects – whether they are sponsored by education systems at central, regional or district level or initiated at school level need to be questioned. The proliferation of curriculum projects throughout Australia demonstrates the dynamic nature of the school curriculum and highlights at least four levels of curriculum decision-making: at national level via the Curriculum Development Centre; state level by education systems; regional level by education systems; and school level by school staff. The latter example, often referred to as the grass-roots model, focuses on the school staff as initiators and controllers of curriculum improvement and staff development.

For curriculum intention to become curriculum reality teachers and educational administrators require support from a variety of resource personnel. The monitoring of curriculum implementation, the identification of the educational needs of students and society, the recognition of teacher needs and the identification and selection of curriculum policy options must be considered within a broad framework of educational issues. It is the interlocking of policy, implementation, evaluation and staff development which brings together the expertise of policy-makers, researchers, curriculum consultants and teachers in order to translate curriculum intentions into reality in the school. The direct involvement of the clients is crucial since the curriculum intention has to be truly theirs if they are to translate these intentions into reality.

Someone else's intention will often be distorted or ignored if the clients do not perceive a relationship between the intention and their reality. Furthermore the intention needs to have a sound conceptual base if it is to be translatable into reality.

Curriculum and Research Considerations

Education systems in Australia have established service agencies related to the areas of curriculum and research to prepare curriculum guidelines, disseminate information about curriculum issues and the best of current practice, provide suggestions for inservice education, conduct policy-oriented research, evaluate curriculum implementation, and to monitor curriculum development in each state and overseas.

One of the most overlooked areas of curriculum development given the current structure of curriculum and research services is that of implementation. Curriculum and research services personnel (at a school, regional or central level) can focus on implementation strategies to ensure that curriculum guidelines are written in such a way that they are easy to read, understandable and suggest practical approaches to implementation. At the same time those carrying out the ultimate implementation at the school-community level need to participate in the formulation of curriculum intentions from the beginning.

Toward the end of the 1970s education systems in this country had moved responsibilities for curriculum decision-making in varying degrees away from a central organisation to schools. This shift in responsibilities brought with it demands for more support services to assist teachers to develop more effective teaching-learning programs; to select and use resources; to develop techniques for student assessment; to determine curriculum evaluation procedures that would illuminate strengths and limitations of various aspects of the school curriculum; and to assist teachers in the development of skills to enhance teacher participation in decision-making. These support services may be grouped into McGaw's (1977) six potential functions of curriculum service agencies: curriculum conceptualisation, curriculum development, resource materials development, resource materials review, teacher development, and research evaluation.

This broad perspective on curriculum and research services brings into focus the central task of schools - the curriculum. The term curriculum has been defined in many ways - ranging from a planned program of learning opportunities in the form of a curriculum guide or a syllabus, to the sum total of the experiences children encounter at school. Musgrave (1974, 10) acknowledged the difficulties in defining curriculum, and, in introducing a collection of studies in the curriculum raised this issue:

> Before attempting this task, however, a brief comment about the term 'curriculum' is necessary, since it has been defined in many different ways. Here a broad view is taken and the curriculum is seen to be all those learning experiences arranged by a formal educational organisation for its students, whether these occur within or outside the premises concerned.

This paper bases much of its argument on Musgrave's broad definition of curriculum. Curriculum consultants and researchers are interested in the intended curriculum, the curriculum in action, and the slippage or difference between the intended and the operative curriculum. Piper (1984, 11) captures the latter notion: 'It is not simply a question of how plans are put into action, but of the changes which take place in the plans themselves in the process of their being put into action'.

Using the implementation of *Queensland's Review of School Based Assessment* (ROSBA) as an example, there has been considerable change at the central decision-making level with respect to the original stated intention of the report. The broad range of interpretations at the school work program level that has emerged indicates the nature of this change. Nevertheless, the agreed amendments are proceeding effectively.

Curriculum consultants must have insights into curriculum in practice, a working knowledge of theories, a realisation of the interaction between theory and practice, and an understanding of the processes of curriculum change. Writing about a language project in South Australia, Riordan (1984, 80) concluded that consultants are likely to contribute best to teacher and curriculum development when:

a. they are chosen or invited by teachers to meet teachers' immediate concerns and interests;
b. teachers know who's around and what they're good for;
c. teachers know what questions they want to explore;
d. resource people are available to work closely with teachers; and
e. resource people recognise the knowledge base teachers have and see their role as a building on and expanding that knowledge, that is, they are prepared to work cooperatively with teachers as co-researchers and co-learners.

Merely increasing the number of support services will not necessarily ensure effective curriculum implementation. While Riordan (1984, 80) asserts that 'the maintenance of support services is crucial if teacher and curriculum development is to be sustained', it should also be recognised that support service effectiveness increased when the support personnel meet the stated needs and intentions of their clients.

For example, teachers on the geography syllabus sub-committee of the Queensland Board of Secondary School Studies initiated the development of a 'process' focused (Years 11 and 12) semester syllabus entitled Australian Geographical Inquiries in the mid-1970s. The clients in the schools have been reluctant to accept the implementation of the semester syllabus. They have, on the other hand, infused 'process approaches' to geography in other areas of their teaching program as they have deemed appropriate.

The projects outlined in Appendices 1 and 2 of this paper illustrate the effectiveness of more client-centred approaches to consultancy and curriculum renewal which embody Riordan's principles (a) to (e) outlined above.

Teachers, however, must consider their own involvement in curriculum projects cautiously. Halliday's (1979, 285) frankness is insightful:

> There is a tendency for educators to demand an immediate pay-off: If we can't apply these ideas directly here and now in our teaching, then we don't want anything to do with them. This attitude passes for a healthy pragmatism: we're practical people with a job to do, no time for the frills. In fact, it is simply mental laziness – a refusal to inquire into things that may not have any immediate and obvious applications, but which for that very reason may have a deeper significance in the long run.

Teachers need to develop skills to enable them to reflect upon and evaluate their own teaching and the curriculum in action in their own classrooms. In addition to their knowledge of the literature on curriculum, teachers, through their understandings of their own practices, construct educational theories. Stenhouse (1975) who advocated the notion of teachers as researchers and teachers as curriculum developers based his views on the premise that there could be no curriculum development without teacher development. Curriculum consultants and researchers must acknowledge the role of the teacher as a researcher and curriculum developer and provide opportunities for teachers to further develop their skills in these areas. These consultants and researchers need to be equally reflective and learn from intentions and practices of teachers, students and administrators.

To understand the curriculum in action in schools, curriculum consultants and researchers must not only focus on implementation but also on abandonment. Morker (1980) in a study of the abandonment of social studies materials, concluded that the abandonment of innovations is a normal part of the cycle of change and found:

> The loss of an innovation's major advocate, unrealistic expectations on the part of the users regarding how an innovation will perform, and problems resulting from the misapplication of the innovation were the primary contributors to the decisions to abandon the 'new' social studies materials in these seven schools.

So that teachers may utilise local, regional and central curriculum and research services effectively, they must be aware of the services that are available and their own roles in the context of curriculum development and research.

It is appropriate here to consider Adams' (1983, 79) assertion:

> . . . inevitably the shape and character of any innovation is determined (and that is perhaps not too strong a word) by the capacities and perspectives of those involved. In other words people perform within their own skill repertoire and within the limitations of their own social, political and educational perspectives.

Teachers need also to realise that principals are the key factors in initiating and bringing about school change (Mellon and Chapman 1984, 30). They need to become aware of the professional partnerships curriculum consultants and principals develop as they work with teachers to improve the school curriculum.

The importance of establishing partnerships and collaborative learnings based on the intentions and needs of clients is illustrated in Appendices 1 and 2.

The Inala Cluster of Schools (see Appendix 1) currently operates on a number of important principles. These include:

a. Those affected by any action should participate in the initiation, decision-making and implementation of that action.
b. Specific groups within the cluster choose the support services they want involved and negotiate and control the work of support personnel so that their intentions become their practices.

c. All activities of the cluster are self-critical through the use of an action research model.

The Brisbane South Drama Resource Project (outlined in Appendix 2) is a useful exemplar of school-based consultancy related to curriculum development which involves the participation of clients, follows Riordan's principles of operation, and is self-generating. School-based personnel, once they have learned and applied the skills, inservice members of their own staff and other schools of the region.

Through their experiences, curriculum consultants usually conclude:

- curriculum change depends on a sense of ownership by the clients;
- curriculum change is a time-consuming process;
- approaches to curriculum change must utilise all available knowledge and experiences (student, teacher, parent, community and consultancy services);
- the experimental process of curriculum renewal or renovation is the agent of change, not the individual consultant;
- curriculum guidelines provide one source of information for teachers but the individual school must become the focus of development.

These understandings could well become the guideposts for potential curriculum consultants.

Other Support Services

In recent years there has been a marked increase in the range of the services that are available to support curriculum development initiatives. Many of these have been provided by the various educational employing authorities. However, services have also been provided by teachers' centres, teacher associations, community groups, universities and tertiary colleges, and self-help groups. These have been developed in response to the perceived need for additional non-systemic assistance, especially at local levels, to support curriculum development initiatives.

Many of these groups and organisations have played a vital role in supporting and sustaining the impetus of curriculum activities. Current focuses on such processes as networking, resource sharing, teleconferencing, materials development, inservice education and professional development, have enabled these services to complement those provided in more formal or structured ways. They also act as appropriate vehicles for supporting teacher and school-based initiatives as well as disseminating the processes and products of such activities.

The Brisbane Education Centre, for example, has established a Secretariat to represent all the various subject and teachers' associations that use the services of the centre. This Secretariat is responsible for the provision of clerical, secretarial, administrative and advisory services to the teacher associations who are participants in the activities of the centre.

The Toowoomba Education Centre has coordinated a program of 'teacher exchange' with a teachers' centre in Arizona in the USA. Education centres are also actively involved in introducing educational technology to teachers. The Atherton centre, for example, provides a mobile service to schools for the use of the centre's resource materials and equipment.

These support services need to be flexible in focus and structure as well as remaining highly organised so as to meet the needs and fulfil the requirements of the clients involved in the various curriculum initiatives and developments.

Further Perspectives on Research

The links between research and policy and research and practice are complex. Policy-makers and curriculum consultants require sound information to support and/or direct short and medium-term decisions. In a paper that was both optimistic and pessimistic on the influence of research on educational practice, Kerlinger (1977, 5) explained and defended the following three propositions:

- there is little direct connection between research and educational practice;
- bodies of research aimed at theoretical understanding of psychological, sociological and other behavioural scientific phenomena of possible relevance to educational thinking and practice may have beneficial though indirect effects on educational practice;
- two major obstacles to research influencing educational practice in the long term are the pragmatic - practical notion that research should pay-off and that it should be relevant to contemporary social and educational problems.

These are the challenges confronting researchers who inform policy-makers, disseminate information about curriculum practices, support teachers in their attempts at innovation and attempt to refine methodologies to capture a picture of school curricula in action. Sarason's (1971) work, *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change* contributed to enhancing the credibility of the influence of research on educational practice. Sarason focused on developing an understanding of school culture and its relationship to curriculum change processes. The study provided insights for researchers to examine closely strategies for implementing curriculum change.

Research by Fullan and Pomfret (1977) has shown that curriculum change seldom happens as expected. Further, the studies by Hall and Loucks (1977) demonstrated that curriculum consultants of the past did not emphasise implementation as a critical part of curriculum change. These works have provided clear messages to researchers and are clearly summarised by Fullan and Pomfret (1977, 391):

> Research has shown time and time again that there is no substitute for the primary of personal contact among implementers, and between implementers

and planners/consultants, if the difficult process of unlearning old roles and learning new ones is to occur. Equally clear is the absence of such opportunities on a regular basis during the planning and implementation of most innovations.

While researchers need to address validation and prediction in their studies there is still a further need to develop descriptive and explanatory studies. Doyle and Poinden's (1977-78) paper on *The Practicality Ethic in Teacher Decision Making* and the Australian publication *Friends and Critics: Perceptions on the Theory and Practice of Co-operative Curriculum Development* (Piper, 1984) draw attention to the practicalities of implementing curriculum change and suggest ways to devise approaches to conducting research in schools. It is necessary for researchers to look further than teachers' actions to consider curriculum implementation. They need to look to students, to the classroom and school environment and to the ecological relationships amongst these variables to describe and explain what happens in schools. Through a series of descriptive studies researchers in partnership with teachers, students, parents and administrators can construct a picture of factors that inhibit, limit or facilitate change and identify strategies that will close the gap between the intended and actual curriculum.

It is considered that if researchers are to be effective, studies should be designed to:

- advise education system administrators on general educational issues and specific curriculum projects;
- assist individual schools with school initiated projects;
- inform curriculum consultants on the effectiveness of their activities.

In addition to these roles, the researcher can act as a consultant to educational and curriculum policy-making committees. It is the use made of the research that is critical. In fulfilling an effective role in ensuring that research influences policy-making researchers have a responsibility to recognise the relationship between educational policy formulation and the consequential decision-making process.

For example, in an examination of current practice in 'Australian Studies', researchers worked with teachers and students in selected Queensland schools to document the existing practice, describe the range of these studies and provide the basis for the formulation of a policy framework.

Some of the most self-evident and yet overlooked areas of the functions of curriculum services and research services offered by educational systems at various levels are summarised in the following:

> Curriculum vitality is best developed and maintained if schools have available to them a strong, integrated, well-resourced core of support services in the way of curriculum designs and materials, adaptations, demonstrations, evaluation, training, consultations, and others. These services and the stimulation they provide must be aimed directly at the classroom and the transactions that occur there. And their provision must be as important a feature of educational policy as the staffing of schools.
>
> (Heinze, King, Kraus and Nunes 1977, 4)

Conclusion

> 'Curriculum projects lead to improved teaching, more effective use of resources and more effective learning'.

There is evidence to support this assertion and evidence that support services can contribute to effective learning. The exemplars in Appendices 1 and 2 indicate the complex nature of support provisions. This very complexity of project design and support provision, can hide a number of important questions. These include:

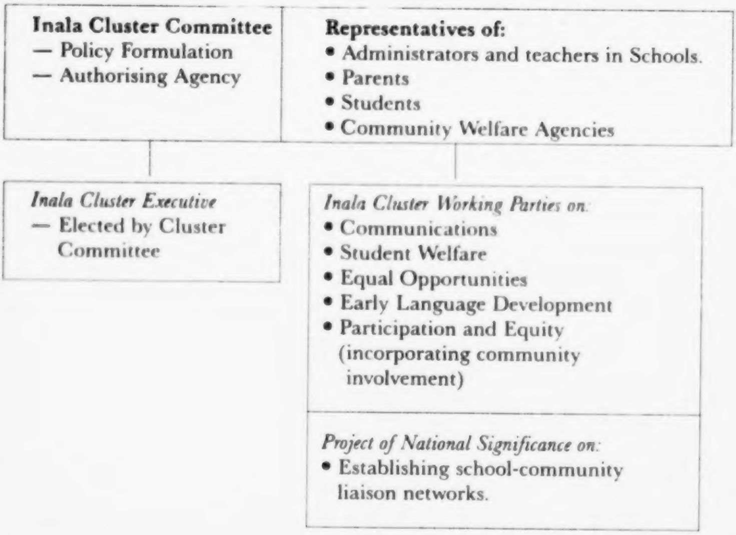
a. At a basic level, to what extent does any intended curriculum change mirror the needs, desires and aspirations of the client(s)?
b. At a functional level, to what extent can support services be offered and guaranteed on an on-going basis over the time necessary to produce self-generating change(s)?
c. Most importantly of all, to what extent are the providers of the support, at systems and other levels, committed to a framework of support provision that is client-centred, self-critical and ready to utilise the knowledge and experience of teachers, students, parents and the general community?

If questions such as these provide a basis for the decision-making and policy development about support provisions, then support services will promote effective learning.

Appendix 1. The Inala Cluster of Schools: Use of Support Services

The development of the Inala Cluster of Schools in Brisbane West Education Region in Queensland since May 1984 exemplifies one approach to the integration of theory and practice. An action-research model after Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) was adopted and a wide range of formal support services drawn upon to assist local administrators, teachers, parents, welfare services and other community personnel who constitute the cluster. The utilisation of local and outside support services meet Riordan's criteria outlined earlier. The action research model also promotes the notion of teachers as researchers and consultants as facilitators in this process. Teacher development and curriculum development are interrelated within a whole community context of the two state high schools, one special school, seven primary schools and eight community and welfare agencies formally represented on the Inala Cluster Committee. The use of consultants is based on the notion mentioned earlier that 'the experiential process of curriculum renewal or renovation is the agent of change, not the individual consultant'. Researchers involved have remained consultants to the policy-making committee and its executive.

As a result of the process of consultants' involvement and researchers' reports the Inala Cluster had altered its administrative structure quite happily. The current administrative structure is:



Inala Cluster Committee
— Policy Formulation
— Authorising Agency

Representatives of:
- Administrators and teachers in Schools.
- Parents
- Students
- Community Welfare Agencies

Inala Cluster Executive
— Elected by Cluster Committee

Inala Cluster Working Parties on:
- Communications
- Student Welfare
- Equal Opportunities
- Early Language Development
- Participation and Equity (incorporating community involvement)

Project of National Significance on:
- Establishing school-community liaison networks.

The following diary of events indicates the role of support services in the development of the Inala Cluster and some of the key issues addressed. Because it is not an intensive case of study it does not reveal in detail the inter-relationship between the events or the complexity of the process involved.

July 1983: The two secondary school principals received a professional development grant from QINSEC (Queensland In-Service Education Committee) to examine education in working class areas in Melbourne. Visits focused during the two weeks on the Doveton Cluster and schools in the Brunswick area cooperating with parent and community groups to improve the educational outcomes for students. Both principals were impressed by the practical action being taken and the similarities in terms of the nature of the problems and the geographical identity to the Richlands-Inala area in Brisbane. Informal discussions began regarding the formation of an Inala Cluster in 1984.

April 1984: Both Inala and Richlands State High Schools were nominated as Participation and Equity Program (PEP) target schools together with the Inala Special School. The three principals met and agreed to call a meeting of all school principals (including state and Catholic primary schools), community representatives and parents. Support was received from Brisbane West Regional Office for this initiative.

May 1984: An initial meeting on 10 May agreed to establish an Inala Cluster. A Cluster Steering Committee met on 22 May and its recommendations were amended and endorsed by a meeting of all school principals on 31 May. The first general meeting of the Inala Cluster Committee was set for 11 July. PEP Coordinators were appointed part-time in each of the two secondary schools to act as *school-based consultants* in the development of PEP proposals and action. Plans for consultation with school staff were made.

June 1984: An Inala Cluster PEP submission was forwarded through Regional Office to the Departmental PEP Committees to the State PEP Committee after consultation with school staffs, the Inala Cluster Interim Executive, regional consultants and discussion with an officer in Curriculum Services Branch. The main requests in the submission were for:

- employment of a community education officer (CEO);
- establishment of a shop front easily accessible to local parents and community in the Inala Civic Centre as a base for the CEO;
- employment of a research assistant for the Cluster;
- funds for the production of a school-community newspaper;
- administrative costs.

July 1984: The first full Cluster committee meeting discussed the structure of the Cluster, the concept of working parties, the role of PEP and the election of an Executive. The two school-based PEP Coordinators attended a secondary inservice conference on PEP.

August 1984: The second Cluster committee meeting discussed and endorsed the aims, membership and structure of the Cluster and its Executive, established the initial working parties, elected the Executive and supported the engagement of a Brisbane College of Advanced Education (BCAE) lecturer as 'critical friend' to the Cluster. A PEP Coordinator in one of the secondary schools discussed a school-based research proposal with officers from Research Branch and conducted the research with parents, students and teachers.

September 1984: The third Cluster committee meeting decided to apply for funding through Projects of National Significance; to advertise the CEO's position; to distribute the first Cluster newsletter to all students in cluster schools and community agencies involved in the Cluster. One of the secondary schools held a PEP community-staff forum during the student free days and an officer from Curriculum Services Branch was engaged in a survey of 'Perceptions of the Inala Cluster' to enable formative evaluation to result in action early in 1984.

October 1984: The fourth Cluster committee meeting confirmed the appointment of the CEO and research assistant, established an equal opportunities working party and elected a deputy chairman.

One of the secondary schools undertook a language and learning classroom investigation project involving B.Ed. students with teaching experience, a lecturer from the BCAE and officers from Curriculum Services Branch.

November 1984: The report from the language and learning study led to reorganising the role of the resource teacher in that secondary school for 1984, the introduction of a whole-school reading program and the introduction of more mixed ability vs 'streamed' classes.

December 1984: The fifth Cluster committee meeting heard the first of the working party reports; a report from an interstate consultant from the Doveton Cluster and the first draft interim report from the Curriculum Services Branch officer on the perceptions of administrators, teachers, students, parents and welfare agency staff on the early operations of the Cluster. The Cluster Executive met at least once between Cluster committee meetings during 1984 and more frequently early in 1985 until the shop front was established. The 'critical friend' from the BCAE and the officer from Curriculum Services Branch were invited to attend Executive meetings. Local support services involved were Education Department officers working at the Inala Family Education Centre (speech therapists, guidance officers), doctors from the Inala Child Guidance and Inala Community Health Centre, Juvenile Aid Police, social workers from Community House, guidance officers and teachers with specialist knowledge from schools.

11 March 1985: The sixth Cluster committee meeting decided that fewer full committee meetings and more Executive meetings (monthly) should be held during 1985. The Executive was asked to oversee the ongoing administration of the Cluster and to present implications of the reports from the 'critical friend' (BCAE), Curriculum Services Branch officer, the interstate welfare officer from the Doveton Cluster, and a report of two Inala Cluster representatives who visited the Doveton Cluster during their school holidays.

20 May 1985: The seventh Cluster committee meeting received and endorsed recommendations from the Executive from the four reports. A second newsletter was endorsed for distribution and reports received from each of the working parties and the community education officer. The shop front was operating very successfully indeed. An accountability structure for overseeing the Project of National Significance was endorsed. The research assistant and CEO's report on data from the school leavers' survey was tabled. Employment of an Aboriginal woman to assist in the shop front through the National Employment Scheme for Aboriginals (NESA) was endorsed. A regional office PEP consultant was working with one of the secondary school PEP coordinators in a classroom investigation of attitudes of Year 11 students, who would not normally have returned to school, to the content, teaching methods and classroom organisation of Year 11 courses. Data from this investigation was discussed with the PEP project's officer from Curriculum Services Branch.

In addition to the support services outlined above, the Inala Cluster has drawn upon consultancy from library and resource services with respect to topic timetabling and resource management at a whole-school level, special program schools funding, multicultural education grants and Aboriginal aid and counsellors.

Appendix 2. The Brisbane South Region Drama Resource Project: An Exemplar of Cost-Effective Intensive Consultancy Development

The project's principles of operation and model for teacher involvement are as follows:

i. Project activities are learner centred; both teacher and student needs forming the basis of the work to be undertaken.
ii. Work is conducted in an intensive way, over an extended period, in the teacher's own teaching space. Length of involvement varies according to the needs of the teacher and availability of project team members.
iii. Teachers and team members adopt the following model of teacher involvement for operating in the project.

Phase I: Observing

- definite decision by teacher to use drama and participate in project
- teacher isolating content and educational aims
- teacher as observer
- teacher adopting auxiliary roles in dramatic situations set up and led by the consultant
- lesson sequence to last from four to eight weeks.

Phase II: Participating

- shared planning of a lesson sequence
- dramatic contexts set up by team member, equal leadership with the teacher
- teacher running segments of up to a whole lesson
- shared evaluation

This phase is augmented by a short program of supplementary inservice workshops and group planning sessions. (A willingness to participate in such workshops is a condition for continuation in the program. This phase generally lasts for approximately one school semester).

Phase III: Planning and Management

a.
- joint planning (by teacher and consultant) of simple dramatic situations which explore specific curriculum topics
- drama led by teacher
- team member adopting secondary roles, observing and assisting in the planning and management of lessons
- joint evaluation of outcomes

b.
- teacher planning and leading sustained and involving dramas
- team member observing/assisting in planning and management of lessons, adopting secondary roles
- joint evaluation of outcomes.

c.
- teacher preparing curriculum resource materials in consultation with resource team. This phase generally lasts from two to four school semesters.

This phase is augmented by:

1. extended involvement in supplementary inservice courses (these may be credit bearing inservice units at the BCAE, Mt Gravatt Campus); and
2. use of curriculum resource materials produced by the project team.

Phase IV: Refining and Reflection

- teacher planning and evaluating programs using drama
- teacher regularly using drama techniques
- personal professional recognition for teacher in this field
- teacher and class available for demonstration work
- assisting as leader with Phase II supplementary inservice workshops
- assisting with field-based components of CAE pre-service course units
- assisting with field-based components of CAE inservice course units.

iv. The project team work in a school when administration and members of staff support the team's activities. It is expected that this support from the school will continue for the duration of the team's involvement with the school.

v. Work conducted as part of the Drama Project is integrated into the teacher's total program and participating teachers ensure that any necessary follow-up work is completed before the next visit.

vi. The project team member makes contact with the whole staff, for example at a staff meeting, at an appropriate time. Such a meeting introduces the techniques of educational drama to all teachers, and provides samples of work completed in the school.

vii. Workshops, written materials and video resources produced by the team are a supplement to the classroom based activities. Workshops cater for different levels of expertise in drama and attendance by participating teachers is required. Written materials will be of a workable format, relevant to teachers' needs.

viii. Team members encourage an information exchange and communication within and between schools about the drama work being planned and taught.

xi. Team members consult with teachers and administrators to establish a policy for the development of drama in education in the participating schools.

The project staff have extended their effectiveness considerably by developing a network of teacher–consultants throughout the region in project schools. Hence a Phase V has been added to Phases I-IV as follows:

Phase V of inservice model: Enrichment and Network Communication

Phase V of the model incorporates these intentions —

- to provide intensive support for teachers who are already implementing drama in the classroom;
- these teachers become part of a network of teachers who initiate drama programs within their schools and who provide a human resource network throughout the Brisbane South Region.

There are two Phase V strategies which have been initiated:

a. *Drama in Schools:* Drama in schools is one of the enrichment strategies of Phase V of the inservice model. Teachers from project schools are selected on the basis that they use drama as a teaching method and are keen to further develop their drama/teaching skills. A drama/learning program is developed and presented by these teachers in each of the schools where these teachers work.

b. *Drama Out:* Primary project teachers' meeting, Brisbane South Region.
INTENTION: The Brisbane South Region Drama Resource Project decided – to provide intensive back-up to the primary project teachers who were already implementing drama in the classroom.
ORGANISATION: 'Drama Out' established a network of communication in the form of a monthly meeting where primary project teachers:
   - workshopped advanced drama/theatre techniques;
   - exchanged primary drama resources;
   - brainstormed ideas for episodic drama sessions;
   - viewed drama videos for critical analysis; and
   - developed resources for a wide audience.

   These are just some of the activities in which the teachers primarily concerned with using drama as a teaching method, participate.

Becoming a project school requires specific commitments on behalf of the staff and administration involved as well as the consultancy team. Usually one of the three regional consultants works in a project school for a week at a time. After that week staff involved have time to apply their knowledge with the support of follow-up inservice, participation in the Drama in Schools Program or the Drama Out network. The consultant then returns for another full week or more later on and the process continues. In the meantime teachers within each project school support one another through discussion, joint planning of lessons or co-teaching. The project members used to work in several schools over a longer period on a one day a week basis but found the full week per school more effective. Follow-up work may also involve further resources production, trialling and publication.

This intensive school-based consultancy/inservice model is applicable in many areas of the curriculum other than drama in education. What is significant in this exemplar is the process of consultancy support not the actual content.

References

Adams, R.S. (1982) Research into educational innovation: A possible case of educational transfer, *Company,* 13 (1), 69-80.

Doyle, W. and Ponden, G.A. (1977-8) The practicality ethic in teachers' decision making, *Interchange 8,* (3), 1-12.

Fullan, M. and Pomfret, A. (1977) Research on curriculum and instruction implementation, *Review of Educational Research,* 47, 335-75, Winter.

Hall, G.E. and Loucks, S.F. (1977) A developmental model for determining whether the treatment is actually implemented. *American Educational Research,* 14 (3), 263-76, Summer.

Halliday, M. (1979) Linguistics in teacher education. In J. Maling-Keepes and B.D. Keepes *Language in education: The language development project, phase 1,* Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Heinze, R.H., King, A.R., Krause, D.L. and Nunes, S.S. (1977) Ten years of curriculum research and development in Hawaii: Where have we been? *Educational Perspectives,* 16 May, 3-5.

Kemmis, S. and McTaggart, R. (1982) *The action research planner,* Deakin University Press.

Kerlinger, R.N. (1977) The influence of research on education practice, *Educational Researcher,* September, 5-12.

McGaw, B. (1977) *Curriculum services in a State education system,* Education Department of Victoria, Melbourne.

McNeil, J.D. (1977) *Curriculum: A Comprehensive Introduction,* Little, Brown and Co., Boston.

Mellor, W.L. and Chapman, J.D. (1984) Organizational effectiveness in schools. *Educational Administration Review,* 2 (2), 25-36, Spring.

Morker, G.W. (1980) Why schools abandon 'New Social Studies' materials, *Theory and Research in Social Education,* VII (4), 35-57, Winter.

Musgrave, P. (Ed.) (1974) *Contemporary studies in the curriculum,* Angus and Robertson, Sydney.

Piper, K. (1984) *Friends and critics: perspectives on the theory and practice of co-operative curriculum development,* Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Riordan, L. (1984) Towards co-operative curriculum development in a teacher network: Reflections on the language development project in South Australia. In K. Piper (Ed.) *Friends and critics: Perspectives on the theory and practice of co-operative curriculum development,* Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra.

Sarason, S. (1971) *The culture of the school and the problem of change,* Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Stenhouse, L. (1975) *An introduction to curriculum research and development,* Heinemann, London.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

R.W. Rawlinson and M. Guild-Wilson

For years, keen gardeners observe with never-failing interest, the nesting habits of birds who perform their annual cycle in many back gardens.

The interest has been occasioned not so much by the nature of the activity, but by its regularity and predictability. Awareness has also been heightened by the way in which the fledglings find their wings and in the act of becoming airborne acquire the skill of flying.

What has this to do with the professional development of teachers? While the analogy, like most analogies, has its shortcomings, it serves to bring into sharp relief two concepts. First, the young birds survive because of their repetitive behaviour; second, we have been so interested in the initial flight of the fledgling that we have paid little attention to their acquired flying skills nor to the elegance of the fully developed skills of the parent birds who hovered and soared in supporting the fledgling efforts.

By way of extending the analogy, people use their intelligence to effect stability and mastery of skills that allow for successful control of events in the life-spaces they occupy. Like the ever-increasing sophistication of the bird in flight, they learn to refine their practices thus attaining an ease and style in their performance. They are emancipated from initial repetitive and attentive behaviours in order to adapt to change, to consider alternatives and to demonstrate the flexibility through which they try to effect improvements to the quality of life.

If educational experience in the widest sense of the term is the most important contributor to people's development and adaptability, then a teacher has a highly significant role to play, both as an agent for the continuity of learning and as an agent for the motivations towards change and flexibility.

On the second point, however, there is an interesting parallel. Certainly it is that the community has invested substantial resources into the preparation for entry into the work of professional teaching – the learning to fly stage; but has shown less interest in the nature and extent of developmental experiences – the learning to fly with ease and elegance.

If we combine these two thoughts, the case for the professional development of teachers becomes both an essential and challenging consideration. It presumes that there is more to the producing of a professional teacher than the repetitive refining of skills acquired to function initially in the classroom. It presumes that the professional teacher continues to experience, to practice, to reflect, to be free to respond to the needs of not only the children but of all the others at different stages of their individual development – colleagues, administrators, parents and others in the educational community. It presumes also that while some aspects of development are acquired by individual effort most of the fully developed skills are practised with others – the learning to fly with the flock in combined manoeuvres.

Without these presumptions about the essential nature of adult development, it could be argued that the experience required for supporting the fledglings in initial flight requires selective attributes and skills, perhaps of a limited nature no matter how efficiently these are performed. Much more is required, however, if selected skills are understood in the context of further development and their place in evolving perspectives and expectations about the value of educational experiences. The professional teacher is called to enter the management of ideas and resources which allow overall goals and strategies for system manoeuvres to be accomplished successfully and professionally.

The focus of this chapter will be on the role of systems in promoting professional development of its teachers. It is not sufficient to say that we need to commit more resources and time to this task. Resources and time in periods of limited economic growth are critical devices through which to emphasise the importance of precisely defined objectives.

It is necessary, first, to consider the basic purpose of professional development. There can be no doubt that the basic purpose shared by all professions is the delivery of quality service. This is a dynamic which not only motivates a profession, but which also is its reason for being. For if this dynamic is lost, then the service required can become the province of the technician.

Basic to the delivery of a quality service are four requirements, which are shared by all professions: the possession of a range of relevant skills and techniques; a sound grasp of the knowledge which relates to the particular profession; a commitment to the values and expectations inherent in the profession itself; and an obligation to use professional expertise in the service of the unique needs of the client.

The combination of the situational factor and overriding purpose of quality service demands that the professional person's basic mode of operation be that of a problem solver and that no solution be offered that will harm or hinder the client.

The Individual

Turning now specifically to the teacher as a professional person, it is necessary to ask 'What professional qualities does a teacher need to have to deliver a quality service?' Louis Ruben (1978) provides a succinct and useful insight into the competencies required by a teacher.

> To be competent, the teacher must have a repertoire of efficient techniques, a sound knowledge of the intellectual ideas to be taught, an ability to respond spontaneously to teaching opportunities that emerge from activities of the classroom, an accurate perception of the educational process, and a capacity to interact sensitively and compassionately with the learner.

341

There is, however, an equally important dimension which does, in fact, provide the dynamic for the profession and which is necessary in order to guarantee that the quality service will not only be maintained, but will in fact be enhanced. This dimension is the continuing learning and flexibility within the service itself. As Hedley Beare and Tina van Raay (1982) submit, the dynamic is a powerful force requiring change to cope with its implication.

> It is impossible . . . to demonstrate precisely what societal demands will affect systems, institutions, teachers and the nature of education itself over the next decade. But we do have some clues about what kind of teacher is needed to cope with the likely massive changes, both societal and thus educational.
>
> Clearly, the decade of the eighties will require copable rather than merely capable teachers. The notion of the capable teacher is static, implying one who is doing a good job now according to the extant definition of what a teacher is. A copable teacher is one who can and will adapt and thus be always capable. In order to have copable teachers, then, it is imperative that we help them acquire through recurrent education the instruments, evaluate, devise, and implement educational processes and programs.

The view of professional education as a first accelerated stage followed by within-service educational cycles has been predicted, examined and endorsed as an essential need in the professions. Within the past decade it has been viewed as an obligation of the individual as a member of a professional body; it is now viewed as an obligation of the professional body itself to ensure that members are encouraged to take up opportunities and to advise them concerning access, relevance and implications. The serious responsibilities for the role of systems are emerging, as noted recently in the document now known as the Auchmuty Report (Auchmuty 1980).

Professional development has a number of key requirements. The first of these is the acknowledgement by all parties that it is the teacher who must do the learning and relearning. While others can encourage and facilitate, the responsibility for professional growth rests with the teacher as a professional person. This simple fact lies at the heart of professionalism. The ultimate motivation and priorities for use of one's time can only be determined by the individual. In offering reinforcement for this ideal, particularly to those who feel somewhat cynical towards its sincerity, the system itself needs to be warned that the remedy is partly in the hands of the teacher and partly in the hands of the system as it involves the upholding of public service principles. (Schlechty and Whitford, 1983)

The second point follows logically from the first: professional development is a lifelong process. Having declared this principle, writers on this subject then tend to give their own particular version of the stages within the process (Howle 1980; Joyce 1980; Zak 1979). Central to the many different views would appear to be three particular observations. They might best be described as social or psychological rather than structural considerations.

The beginning teacher has a basic focus of establishing competence through practice – of clearly finding out about the real world of teaching, of getting on top of the particular and immediate demands of the job, and of finding out about children's learning and behaviour on a daily basis. This stage of induction and mastery of basic practices is considered to last about 10 years from the commencement of pre-service education. The demands of this stage are well documented (Tisher, *et al.* 1978, 1979).

This is followed by what might be called an expansionary phase. Having mastered the basic strategies there is now time to explore other possibilities, to examine areas of special interest and to build up competencies in specific areas. This expansionary phase may also be accompanied by a change of teaching environment, a major new challenge, or a desire to seek tangible recognition by means of a formal assessment of competence. In decades of the fifties and sixties, many teachers travelled and taught overseas or engaged in exchange programs. In more recent times there has arisen expectations about the need to acquire early promotional status in order to announce arrival in the expansionary phase. Under these circumstances, some teachers may have denied themselves potential opportunities for reflection and comparative study.

The third phase, and the one which is probably most critical in terms of quality of service, is that of regenerative activity. This is the time when there is tension between a teacher's perception of acquired 'wisdom' and self-motivation on the learning curve. It can also be the time when a teacher is most in need of refreshment in regard to techniques, skills and acquiring new knowledge. For many teachers, it can be a time when they have determined family or civic priorities which allow them less time to pursue work-related experiences. Important as other priorities may be at the time, they may occur at the critical period of adult development when there is a need for reconciliation of what has actually happened in a career and earlier expectations or ambitions. Unless these issues are resolved by an individual, it would appear difficult for a teacher to move into the attitude of generativity where the opportunity can be taken to encourage younger professionals in their efforts. The importance of educational and career mentoring has been stressed as a critical factor in the lives of those who indicate a happy and fulfilling professional life (Levinson, *et al.* 1978; Vaillant, 1977).

This third phase and the characteristics which can accompany it are the real test of professionalism. Professionalism does require an ongoing commitment to quality service, and quality service does require an ongoing commitment to keeping up-to-date with new developments in terms of knowledge, skills and values. To the young and older teacher, this ongoing commitment spans a period of some forty years or more – a considerable period for a professional person to take charge of his or her own destiny and to assess its contribution. The loss of a central thrust to the meaning of a professional career marks an undermining of the values and attitudes of the profession itself. It leaves a profession prey to self-doubts which must affect the clients in its care.

To this point, we have concentrated on the individual as a professional. In so doing, we have attempted to highlight both the general characteristics of the teacher as a professional person and the central tenets of professionalism. It is against this background that we now wish to consider the role and responsibility of systems in promoting professional development.

The System

Education systems in Australia have a basic commitment to quality education. State systems have the added responsibility of ensuring that quality services are available to all. In accepting this responsibility, systems cannot be seen only as a collection of professional individuals. The system itself must be seen to be professional in the principles which it endorses and in the management practices that implement the principles.

To fulfil these charges, systems must have at least four basic commitments. The first is a commitment to the employment of qualified staff; the second is to the allocation of staff on an equitable basis consistent with needs; the third is to provide appropriate opportunities for the ongoing proficiency and development of all members of its teaching service; and the fourth is the organisation of career structures in such a way that there is an inherent motivation to seek recognition for high quality service.

While, at first glance, basic employment qualifications, further specialist achievements and staff allocation may be seen to have little direct bearing on professional development as such, they are in fact important ingredients in the dynamics of the process of professional development. They demonstrate that the system appreciates the quality of its teachers and will utilise these resources as its most important asset in the service delivery mechanism. Much of the success of motivation and cooperation of staff depends on their perception of their value and role in the educational endeavours of the system.

The induction of newly qualified teachers in to the system provides an important avenue for the introduction of innovatory practices at the school level. The opportunities for an overall professional impact on newly qualified staff are proportional to the efforts made to incorporate these practices into the established practices of the school. In a positive collegiate relationship established members of the profession can have an immediate access to a source of new ideas; in turn, the beginning teacher can draw upon the expertise and support of their more senior colleagues. A young teacher, in reality, works alone in a classroom for most of the day, perhaps with a little supervision and team teaching as well. Motivation, at this stage, means the small acts of recognition, encouragement, discussion and enthusiasm – the means by which senior colleagues offer system approval and support the impact of professional adequacy on the whole of the school staff.

The necessity to provide a quality service for all requires the system to invest in a vast range of professional competencies. It requires the system to have a mobile teaching service. Such a requirement does provide considerable potential for enhancing professional development through cross-fertilisation of ideas and peer associations. There can be no doubt that there is, within the system context, a rich source of skills and knowledge which can be shared among colleagues. Likewise, the movement of teachers to meet system needs provides a potential basis for interchange and exchange. In a large system, some teachers may perceive the mobility factor as impersonal - the reasons for movement of the individual recognise homogeneity and transferrable competencies rather than the matching of acquired skills and interests to an area of need.

It must be acknowledged that the significance of the above conditions is a matter of potential. The reality of the personal identity of the professional can at best be local and *ad hoc* in nature. They are nevertheless important ingredients in the total dynamic of professional development and deserve further consideration as the principles involving human relationships and workplace conditions become more critical in demonstrating quality service provision.

The third system responsibility is at the heart of quality service. Undoubtedly, the greatest asset that the system has in furthering the quality of educational service is the membership of the teaching profession. It is therefore incumbent upon the system to ensure appropriate opportunities for staff development in terms which span the expected forty-year commitment to service which both the system and the individual may make in a permanent employment relationship. A strategy which looks only to immediate system requirements or current teacher gratifications will fail to meet the test of professionalism - the enduring nature of ongoing commitment.

Notwithstanding the obligation on the individual to advance and plan for anticipated consequences for effort, the system has the basic task of ensuring that opportunities do exist and that individuals are urged to participate.

Above all, systems in declaring a commitment to professional development must ensure that it is accompanied by carefully developed structures, professionally organised activities and sensitive leadership. The inherent danger in a structured approach to professional development is that the teacher may perceive that there is implicit coercion to fit the system rather than the system interacting with the teacher.

The history of teacher professional development practices of recent decades has demonstrated a shifting focus between individuals and programs but overall tending to stress areas of deficit or upgrading of qualifications or curriculum. It was anticipated that both individuals and programs in a manner of conjunction would contribute to the ongoing problem-solving process within schools and thereby effect change in overall system services. It is doubtful whether such anticipations have been met in terms which can be evaluated appropriately (Goodlad, 1983). In part, this is attributed to the broad based scope of objectives and activities which have aimed to attract a wide range of teachers. In part, however, it may be due to a failure to appreciate the cyclical nature of preparation and practice phases in longer-term school improvements.

It could be suggested that individuals may be served in undertaking separate activities in different ways and different places as the preparation phase. These individuals then become assets to the assigned work collaboratively in the practice phase of the cycle - that is, they effect a possible change of national, state or local significance which can be carried on by others in a maintenance or refinement phase. The responsibility of the system is to ensure what Botsman (1982) has termed 'the linkage roles' are in the right place at the right time.

It would appear that two views of professional development are each receiving definition. Peter Cameron (1982) provides a statement to this effect:

> It seems that over the next decade we will witness a greater need for two types of inservice education. On the one hand, there will be an increased need for more school-focused activities, and, on the other, a need to provide opportunities for programs which focus on individual training needs. At the same time, the need for opportunities for teachers to participate in a wide range of other activities will continue, particularly in view of the fact that, with increased stability in staffing patterns, the level of professional isolation of teachers is likely to increase.

There are, of course, areas of professional development where the system has a direct responsibility to take the initiative and to fashion professional development programs. This is most likely to happen where there is a need for the provision of specialist services and in new or revised curriculum areas. In this case, the approach is two-fold. The first task is to attract suitable applicants into training or preparation with sufficient lead-time to plan how their skills will be used most effectively. The second task is to take responsibility for collaborative staffing allocations as a commitment to the developmental nature of new initiatives. In effect, this may entail a deliberate policy in regard to the staggered introduction of curriculum change in a school-focused setting. It may also mean providing inducements to hold staff in various locations or roles for the contracted period of the collaborative commitment.

The fourth system responsibility which impinges upon professional development is that of career structures and promotion procedures. Inherent in any open approach is the potential for extremes. There will be teachers who will take their professional obligations seriously and, in so doing, take full advantage of opportunities made available by the system. There will be others - as with any professional group - who will show less inclination to pursue the tenets of professionalism.

This diversity of commitment poses a particular dilemma for the system, for the individual and, indeed, for the profession. Since the system has a responsibility for the delivery of quality service - as does the professional person - it has a concomitant responsibility to monitor the quality of service delivered. Professionalism presupposes accountability to clients and peers.

The sensitivity of accountability mechanisms in the teaching service is not less than in any other profession. However, the sharply-tapered nature of a hierarchical model of system administration can, and often does, give rise to questions about relative roles and the extent to which the system should be involved in promoting more rigorous and extensive criteria for its supervisory and assessing capacity.

There is no easy answer to this dilemma. Tentative moves by systems to broaden the middle-range bases for a career structure have not been debated extensively from either a professional or industrial perspective. As a general principle, however, it would seem that the clearer the system's commitment to promoting and facilitating professionalism, the greater the likelihood of positive working relationships among its members. It follows, therefore, that systems which evidence strong professional leadership and which actively encourage and promote professional development will generate less concern for the implementation of directives and measures of accountability (Walker 1980).

The further requirement is that where it is clear that members of the profession are in need of professional help or redirection, even perhaps are clearly unsuited to a role or task, that steps can be taken to alleviate the situation. This must be done with firmness, compassion, and the responsibility to consider where the individual's strengths may be recognised and utilised.

Professional development should thus be seen as an integral and ongoing service generally. Evidence of professional development should also be regarded as a prerequisite for formal progression within the service. If it is tied exclusively to the promotion structures, especially of an administrative nature, it becomes a means to an end rather than an end in itself. In short, the primary emphasis for professional development must be educational growth and not as the basis for a system of reward or punishment. There is a clear responsibility on the system to ensure that this emphasis is upheld.

Consistent with the concept of professionalism is a healthy respect that the individual's judgment of his/her particular needs and the nature and timing of engagement in professional development activity.

As a general principle, the planning and provision of professional development programs should be based on an interactive approach where teachers become directly involved in identifying their needs and helping to shape the guidelines for their structure and delivery.

Professionalism has both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors embedded in the dynamic of development. Career paths provide a tangible framework in which formal recognition for quality performance can be regularised. As well as identifying those within the profession who are qualified for assuming additional responsibilities, system assessment procedures are, as pointed out above, an important part of monitoring services. It is important to recognise, however, that such practices can have both positive and negative implications for the motivation to undertake professional development tasks.

Three major dimensions emerge from the above analysis: the first is that professional development is a requirement of a responsive system and has as its basic objective improvement of the quality of education, for example in curriculum change.

The second is the dimension of basic professionalism, that is, the inherent desire on the part of the teacher to acquire new skills and knowledge which relate to the growth and development of the discipline of education including the teaching process.

The third dimension is in many respects an interplay of the first and the second. There can be no doubt that recognition of the advancement in one's career is an important motivating factor. The necessity to keep up to date with system requirements and with developments within the discipline of education can provide a positive and dynamic basis for professional growth. Indeed, it could be argued that with strong and sensitive leadership from within a system, the blend is highly desirable from a career viewpoint.

But there can also be inherent drawbacks if either factor becomes the dominating motivation. On the one hand a professional cannot be too 'cramped' by system requirements; on the other a professional, who has to have a commitment to the system objective, cannot become too detached from its realities.

In examining the question of system responsibilities, the balance between system initiative and individual initiative is a central consideration. So too, is the balance between that which is desirable to promote professional development and that which is feasible.

The following propositions have been formulated on the basis of the concepts which have been explored above. They are not intended to be firm options or definitive proposals. Each will have its supporters and detractors.

Propositions

The quality of service delivery is directly related to the system's capacity to:

1. Delineate an overall set of objectives relating to changing system needs and stages of professional progression.
2. Devise structures which recognise both the needs of the system and the prerogative of the individual teacher as a professional person.
3. Develop programs which are consistent with the needs of the system and which can accommodate the aspirations of the individual.
4. Provide a variety of ways in which teachers with different needs and locations can gain access to programs.
5. Provide quality leadership to uphold and promote professional development.
6. Develop competence among those responsible for professional service delivery.
7. Devise approaches which are realistic in terms of resource utilisation for program delivery.

8. Ensure that programs reflect the needs of individual teachers, having regard to their level of knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as their location.
9. Ensure that professional development programs provide for a balanced approach to the extension of knowledge, the development of skills, and attitudinal changes.
10. Involve teachers in the planning, coordination and delivery of professional development programs.
11. Encourage and facilitate access of teachers to professional development activities.
12. Take into account teachers' involvement in professional development activities in considering career progression.
13. Take into account future developments and likely needs in planning professional development programs.
14. Maintain an information base on factors such as teachers' qualifications, age, experience, career stage, location, mobility, and special interests.
15. Ensure the coordination of Commonwealth and State resources designated for professional development.
16. Commit a definite percentage of their budget to professional development activities.
17. Provide for a period of professional leave for teachers within a given period of service.
18. Involve tertiary institutions and professional bodies in the structuring of professional development programs and accreditation procedures, where appropriate.

Having formulated these propositions, it is now appropriate to examine their place in a systems context, with particular reference to policy, program structures and strategies, and resources.

Policy

Efforts to maintain vitality and professional commitment to teaching, as well as to ensure that educational issues are constantly being considered, will need to be more deliberate than they have often been in the past. It will mean the strengthening of professional development policies and reconsideration of structures and resources for their implementation.

Professional development should be viewed as 'an educative process, planned and continuous, concerned with the professional growth of all school personnel as individuals and as members of groups, thereby making them better able to meet the needs of the school and its students'. (Berghund and Rice 1984.) The school community, including parents, should perceive that teachers are learners as well as purveyors of knowledge. Professional development should occur within a setting in which learners normally work together.

Professional development policies should clarify the views and communicate that development opportunities are a natural and integral part of the school system's functioning and are activities compatible with the primary task of educational institutions. Without a commitment to an educational purpose underlying continuous learning throughout a career it will be impossible to sustain and improve the structures and resources which justify professional development activities as an effective means of ensuring the quality and efficiency of the system's practices (Speiker 1978). Not only the system but also school communities and individual teachers should be able to reflect on whether professional development practices make a difference to the manner in which they achieve results appropriate to the goals that they have set for their work in the school community.

Each policy should provide a framework on which it is possible to discuss the practical issues of implementation:

- who should pay for professional development programs
- when should certain development programs occur
- who should determine development programs.

Professional development policies provided by the system as overall guidelines should ensure that the system has a responsibility:

- to disseminate information regarding opportunities and resources on new and critical issues
- to encourage teachers to study and discuss educational issues and practices as they arise in their schools and to make observational comparisons with other schools, states and countries
- to recognise more deliberately the talents and achievements of the members of the teaching service as its most valuable and accessible resource for cooperative professional development programs
- to understand that individual teachers have different needs, abilities and interests which will require adaptive and flexible management to realise the potentials available for planning effective development strategies.

A response to a system's policy is more likely to be forthcoming if the school community and individual teacher perceive that professional development is planned to meet the genuine needs of teachers as they bear directly on professional work and provide greater contact with the personal and social environment in which that work takes place.

An individual policy should declare that the professional has recognised a responsibility:

- to ensure adequate opportunity and time to investigate how effort and activity deployed on professional development will directly relate to teaching goals and ways sought to accomplish them
- to find solutions from professional development opportunities which are created in response to personal situations and career enrichment.

- to recognise professional development as relevant to being a member of a profession, a member of a school community, and an individual teacher or administrator
- to promote convictions that participation in planned and coordinated activities requires management skills on the part of the system and the individual to fully utilise efforts, talents and achievements.

These basic assumptions reflect a commitment by both a system and professionals within it to a contractual relationship or partnership on the essential nature of professional development. Without such a commitment policies are likely to be viewed as too hard to implement, too manipulative for the benefit of interest groups, and too time-consuming when considered as one of many priorities in the professional and personal lives of teachers.

In developing a policy statements, each participant - system, school community, and individual - may reflect on the questions that each should feel are consistent with the goals and philosophy at their particular stage of professional growth.

Program Structures and Strategies

Teachers and administrators may quite reasonably equate professional development with access to inservice courses run by system-based committees at locations outside the normal working environment of the school. While attendance at such courses provides valuable contacts, information and motivational challenges, the abrupt impact of a short-term intervention - a one-day course or short evening series - can have but a transitory effect on participants.

Teachers report difficulties that may be termed interference factors to a systematic program of professional development (Correy 1980). These factors include restrictions in the extent and allotment of relief teachers, organisational disruptions to school routines, tardy confirmation of applications and acceptances to activities, poor promotion of the aims and objectives and their target groups, limitation in enrolments on attractive activities, inconvenient choice of locations, time and travel difficulties and non-existent follow-up options. Such interference factors can effect participants and deter further involvement. Some participants would not perceive the difficulties as insurmountable.

Systematic planning for continuous professional development emphasises the need for organisation to be carried out professionally. Teachers who have always been active in community events may fail to realise the extent of management coordination that will be required either within a school or region to effect successful activities. The roles of junior executives in schools acting as facilitators for staff development and the roles of professional organisers for system coordination is viewed as crucial to successful programs (Peterson 1985).

It is evident that a broad range of activities is currently being used for professional development by school communities. These may involve

- the whole school staff
- groups within the school
- individual teachers and administrators

Activities include staff meetings, workshops, observation visits, professional reading programs, cooperative teaching projects, curriculum and submission writing teams, resource data collections, committee membership, action research, advisory and supervision duties. The theoretical possibilities for types of activities are innumerable. The questions to be asked involve consideration of the appropriate design and organisation to fit the purposes agreed upon by a school community and the needs of the individual working within that community.

Resources

Various accounts of professional development activities indicate that a wide range of resources is utilised through the use of initiative and forward planning. The decline in system provision through Commonwealth and State funding allocations has placed administrative constraints on the range and accessibility of certain types of activities. Such periods of decline also provide the opportunity to assess the types and amounts of resources that may be appropriate for a systematic approach to continuing programs of professional development. While substantial resources are required on a system-wide basis, greater attention may need to be given to the use of alternative strategies and resources to meet specific needs in the future.

Resources to be considered include the provision of time, provision of project grants, utilisation of documents and technology, facilitative deployment of consultants, skilled staff, parents, staff committees and working groups. It would seem that resources found within school communities and neighbouring institutions/agencies/interest groups have the potential to be harnessed to support localised endeavours. When resources from outside are required, negotiated and coordinated arrangements should be contracted for a specific purpose.

Evidence of self-initiated resource deployment has been reported on an informal basis in rural regions of New South Wales and discussed more formally by Harisun (1985) in regard to South Australian endeavours.

Questions relating to resource provision include the commitment of specific amounts (or budget percentage) for system initiatives, the relationship between years of teaching and the nature and extent of professional development support; the utilisation of professional expertise by those in executive positions in schools; and the future use of access networks and technology.

Professional development is essential for the provision of quality education and for the achievement of professional excellence. While primary responsibility rests with the teacher as a professional person, systems have an ongoing responsibility to initiate and provide appropriate opportunities.

This involves not only encouragement and support, but also the design and delivery of professional development programs which meet both the needs of the system in its pursuit of quality, and the needs of the individual teachers in their pursuit of professional excellence.

References

Auchmuty, J.J. (Chairman) (1980) National Inquiry into Teacher Education. AGPS, Canberra, 77-95.

Beare, H. and Van Raay, T. (1982) Recurrent education for teachers: some research and development considerations. In Hewitson, M. (Ed.) *Recurrent Education and Teaching Role.* ERDC Report 34. AGPS, Canberra, 5.

Berghund, N. and Rice, A. (1984) Staff development: the role of the junior executive. *Insight,* a Journal of the NSW Department of Education, (1) 9-11.

Botsman, P.B. (1982) Recurrent education for teachers: a knowledge utilization approach. In Hewitson, M. (Ed.) *Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role.* ERDC Report 34. AGPS, Canberra.

Cameron, P. (1982) Changing patterns of student participation, student expectations and employment opportunities for students: an overview of some implications for the recurrent education for teachers. In Hewitson, M. (Ed.) *Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role.* ERDC Report 34. AGPS, Canberra.

Correy, P. (Chairman) (1980) *Continuity, Challenge and Change in Teacher Education in New South Wales:* Report of the Committee to examine teacher education in NSW. Government Printer, Sydney.

Goodlad, J. (1983) The school as workplace. In Griffin, G. (Ed.) *Staff Development.* NSSE, Chicago.

Harisun, M. (1985) Some successful strategies for professional development. *Pivot:* a Magazine of South Australian Education, (12), 2.

Houle, C.O. (1980) *Continuing Learning in the Professions.* Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Joyce, B. (1980) The ecology of professional development. In Hoyle, E. and Megarry, J. (Eds.) *Professional Development of Teachers. World Yearbook of Education.* Kogan Page, London, 19.

Levinson, D.J. (1978) *et al. The Seasons of a Man's Life.* Knoff, New York.

Peterson, K. (1985) Organising a conference - professionally. *The Australian,* March 28, 17.

Rubin, L. (1978) Some postulations and principles on the continuing professional education of teachers. In Rubin, L. (Ed.) *The Inservice Education of Teachers: trends, processes and prescriptions.* Allyn & Bacon, Boston, 293.

Schlechty, P. and Whitford, B. (1983) The organizational context of school systems and the function of staff development. In Griffin, G. (Ed.) *Staff Development.* NSSE, Chicago.

Speiker, C. (1978) Do staff development practices make a difference? In Rubin, L. (Ed.) *The Inservice Education of Teachers: trends, processes and prescriptions.* Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

Tisher, R.P. *et al.* (1978-9) *Beginning to Teach.* Vols I and II. ERDC Reports 15 & 20. AGPS, Canberra.

Vaillant, G.E. (1977) *Adaption to Life.* Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

Walker, W.G. (1980) Leadership for lifelong education: the role of educational administration. In Cropley, A.J. (Ed.) *Towards a System of Lifelong Education: some practical considerations.* Pergamon Press, London.

Zak, I. (1979) Developmental transitions in the professional growth of teachers. In *Teacher Effectiveness, Proceedings of the Fourth Conference of the International Association of Educational Assessment.* Pergamon, New York.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

W.D. Neal

Review

The propositions being put forward in this study are that:

1. the truly professional person is self-motivating and accepts responsibility for seeking his/her own development;
2. many professional development activities, if they are to change classroom and school behaviour, should take place in the school and should be cooperative planned; and
3. nevertheless the system has a major leadership role in initiating and maintaining activities which will promote a truly professional teaching force.

Although this project has been concerned almost entirely with the teaching service, much of what has been written applies with equal force to the support staff who work in schools and administrative services. The principles are the same; only the applications will differ because of the nature of the tasks of the employees.

In the 'Introduction and Overview' to this theme, the features of a comprehensive personnel policy were outlined. It was noted that professional development activities were only part, although the major part, · of the system's responsibilities. The features of a system's policies and practices were stated as being:

1. a philosophy of and commitment to caring about personnel professionally and personally, as indicated through adequate record systems, concern for all teachers, a view of careers as continuous necessitating guidance and career pattern advice, providing opportunities for new skills with new jobs and attempts to anticipate and rehabilitate the weaker teacher;
2. the development of a conceptual framework which would provide purpose, vigour and accountability;
3. the provision of conditions of service which are acceptable, ensure reasonable continuity and stability and which encourage respect and good human relations;
4. operational guidelines which establish objectives, anticipate the need for new skills, provide personnel trained in teaching professional development activities, ensure supportive services including a system-wide information service and use systematic evaluation mechanisms;
5. supplementary duties and activities, such a curriculum development, which are meaningful and promote professional growth; and

6. resources for personnel services and professional development which are significant and enable continuity of action.

The authors who have contributed chapters to this theme have taken different aspects of the topic and have provided elaborations of the subject matter pertinent to the role of the system.

Walker has developed the question of personnel policies in modern organisations. He points out that the two key dimensions of organisations are structure and people and he stresses therefore, the increasing importance being placed on people in organisations, especially where change is occurring. Hence modern organisations are paying greater attention to the personnel function. Personnel administration is being developed and studied as a profession of its own. It has been established that specially qualified, well educated personnel managers have become essential but that there seems to be inbuilt tensions between personnel management with its concern for humanity and line management with its emphasis on output.

Turning to modern educational organisations Walker points out that the increasingly complex and varied tasks facing people in them. Apart from those difficulties inherent in teaching and in administering schools and systems, the position is more complicated by the politicisation of the teaching service, troubled industrial relations, the changing roles of women and developments such as the assessment of teachers. Such complexities make the need for an enlightened personnel policy even more urgent and to accompany that a research program to enable more informed decisions to be made.

A detailed discussion of 'Principles for Planning Professional Development' has been undertaken by Docker. He bases his findings on a review of research evidence elsewhere plus a detailed account of surveys and analyses which have been carried out in Tasmania. Docker stresses that most of the principles underpinning the planning of staff development apply whether the activity is individual, school or system oriented. In general, they are ones already mentioned in earlier chapters, namely cooperative planning, variable according to purpose, well prepared and led by leaders with people skills. He stresses also the need to see the totality of the educational enterprise when considering professional development, for example, its position within a network of linkages involving also curriculum planning, institutional development and management.

He cites research evidence to make the following additional points:

- teachers appreciate assistance while still accepting personal responsibility;
- the involvement of the school in many activities is crucial;
- the importance of the worker's environment and attitude;
- the psychological climate is important;
- shared experiences and resources pay off;

- flexibility in the conduct of activities is needed so that adaptations can be made to suit emerging tasks; and
- a problem-centred orientation is more attractive.

Docker elaborates on the research evidence linking school climate, effective schools and staff development practices. Several studies are reviewed and quoted. Tasmanian research, using several established models, further reinforced the view of the positive relationship between climate and staff development. The hypothesis was drawn that a lead into staff improvement would emerge from work on the school environment. The importance of leadership by the principal and senior staff is an obvious implication.

This chapter takes up also the importance of understanding how adults learn and gives evidence from studies to support the importance of this to activities with teachers. So much of inservice education has failed in the past because of the lack of appreciation that teachers are individuals and that passive force-feeding does not help them or anyone to learn.

In pursuing the idea of assessing and planning around teachers' needs, Docker has given a useful discussion of general research evidence followed by a report of evidence obtained in Tasmania. The information from the latter provided a sound basis for moving forward and the work of the Tasmanians provides a useful model to be examined by others.

It is interesting to note that while many of the needs identified by Tasmanian teachers required staff development activities that were personal or school-based, over half of the teachers identified needs that could be serviced by system-based activities.

The final comment here on the Docker chapter is to draw attention to the latter part where he applies principles developed earlier to the impact of 'educational technology' on teachers and schools. The RPTIM Model is applied to develop an overall program involving 'Readiness', 'Planning', 'Training', 'Implementation' and 'Maintenance'. The proposals presented and the following discussion seem well worth the consideration of others involved in professional development.

The approach taken by Ingvarson and Coulter to review 'Existing In-Service Education Provisions' consists of a summary of their '1984 National Review of Teacher Education' as applied to professional development. In the course of their report they stated:

> No stronger need emerged from the submissions received and the information analysed in the course of our Review than the need to enhance the capacity of schools to plan their own long-term policies for professional development . . . [and] . . . No greater deficiency emerged from the Review than the ability of current Commonwealth and system-level professional development policies to provide coordinated internal and external support which schools require to develop this capacity as a routine part of their operation.

It is interesting to note that during the middle of this Review, the Commonwealth Government switched policies completely and decided that it would concentrate on supporting inservice education activities related mainly to national objectives. This was another example of start-stop Commonwealth policies and should be seen, with respect to professional development, against a fall of two-thirds in Commonwealth funding in any case.

Ingvarson and Coulter make the following points:

1. There has been little follow-up on the effectiveness of professional development programs - (Commonwealth or State).
2. Financial resources for professional development have fallen sharply.
3. Teachers make a considerable investment of their own time (some, that is).
4. There is uncertainty about who has the responsibility; employing authorities have tended to regard the establishment of Commonwealth oriented State PDP Committees as exempting them from responsibility.
5. There is an urgent need for coordination and integration.
6. The capacity of schools should be enhanced.
7. Tertiary education staff should be used more effectively.
8. It is not the quantity but the effectiveness of professional development activities which must be enhanced.

The Ingvarson and Coulter chapter proceeds to list and discuss a number of recommendations for the future. These will be discussed later in this chapter.

Berkeley has discussed the role of support services in promoting professional development. He stresses the importance of support services during the implementation stages of curriculum innovation and in particular, the role of consultants. However, he does point out some conditions for success, namely:

i. consultants must be invited and accepted;
ii. teachers are knowledgeable and their knowledge in terms of what they want must be used;
iii. cooperative planning is important; and
iv. principals of schools are key figures.

Berkeley discusses other support services including teachers' centres, teacher associations, community groups, tertiary institutions and self-help groups.

The whole discussion is illustrated with case studies of professional development in action.

While Berekley is disappointed with the impact of research studies on professional behaviour he does conclude on a positive note. He stresses the importance of trying to meet the needs of clients and of providing support services on a continuing rather than an *ad hoc* basis. Finally he says:

> . . . to what extent are the providers of the support, at systems and other levels, committed to a framework of support provision that is client-oriented, self-critical and ready to utilise the knowledge and experience of teachers, students, parents and the general community?

Attention is directed also to the case studies which illustrate a number of important principles for staff development.

Rawlinson and Guild-Wilson tackle the job of looking toward the future and suggesting propositions that might guide the future development of professionally oriented staff. They start with an assessment of what is involved in being a professional and point out that the basic purpose is the delivery of quality service. This involves a range of skills, techniques and knowledge together with commitment to relevant values, expectations and obligations in the service of the client. If this concept is applied to the teaching service, it is necessary to accept the obligations of continuous professional development, including:

i. the view that the teacher is faced with learning and relearning;
ii. development is a lifelong process; and
iii. the regenerative quality of relearning, almost a renewal, as a key factor.

Turning to future prospects, the authors stress a number of general considerations which are important to the professional well-being of staff, namely:

i. a commitment to employ qualified staff;
ii. the allocation of staff on an equitable basis according to need;
iii. appropriate opportunities for ongoing proficiency and development; and
iv. the organisation of appropriate career structures.

From this position, the discussion proceeds to the cyclical nature of the various phases of teacher development including, as appropriate, periods of theoretical and practical training even in the mature phase of a teacher's career.

Rawlinson and Guild-Wilson emphasise that many of the basic principles behind professional development will apply equally well in the future, for example:

i. professional development is an expectation of all;
ii. a cooperative, interactive approach;
iii. self-evaluation of own progress and needs; and
iv. the need for balance between individual initiative and systems initiative.

That chapter then contains a series of propositions as a guide to future action in planning to achieve the goals set out earlier. Some of these propositions, together with other recommendations are discussed later.

Some Implications

The authors in this volume have taken up and extended many of the guidelines set out in the initial framework for this theme. There is little point in belabouring some of those points any further. However, there are some key ideas which were introduced at the beginning, have been elaborated since and are worth emphasising and re-emphasising. After all some of these ideas had been commented upon a long time ago as the following examples will show.

In a thesis on 'inservice education' over thirty years ago it was stated (Neal 1954, 58):

> Out of this new approach to inservice education of teachers, *i.e.* of teachers working in groups, has arisen an interest in the fundamentals of group dynamics. Several studies of the findings of this field, applied to attitude changes in teachers, have been reported from England and USA. It seems conclusive that any attempt to encourage professional growth or to introduce any change in teacher practices or outlook must take full heed of the principles governing the working together of groups; otherwise there will be little hope of any permeation of new ideas in the classroom.

The same thesis quotes from another appropriate article (Reid 1946):

> Let's stop blaming teachers for resisting change and begin to set an environment in which changes can be made without fear of failure, without loss of friends, without loss of direction and without too many nights a week of either meetings or midnight study. Let's become as guidance minded with teachers as we are asking teachers to be with children. Let's begin where the teacher is.

No purpose can be served in giving such quotes to say 'I told you so'. They do indicate, however, some basic educational principles which are worth separating out from the broad strategic and global principles outlined in the first chapter of this theme. These educational principles have been taken up in differing ways by most of the authors but they are worth emphasising:

1. Teachers are people, having the same range of needs, aspirations, emotions and learning styles as other adults. To learn they require the kinds of experiences, strategies, involvements, group interactions and incentives as everyone else. As Reid said 'Let's begin where the teacher is'.
2. Cooperative action and involvement can lead to commitment on the part of the teacher, especially in those activities which are dealing with classroom practices. The same principle applies to teachers/administrators who are concerned with improving administrative practice.
3. The use of appropriate research type projects can lead to an information base which will result in much sounder planning and more confidence in assured positive responses. The outline by Docker of the research activities in Tasmania illustrates the possibilities in establishing needs and other appropriate knowledge before committing resources. Similarly the evaluative studies given by Docker and by Berkeley in his case studies, show the importance of systematic review and follow-up. The whole question of an information base, arising from research and evaluation, is important to professional development activities, in a sense not normally appreciated.

The recommendations and propositions put forward by some of the authors lead to questions of strategic significance to the development of a successful personnel management program.

1. It is significant to see professional development as part, while clearly the most significant, of a total commitment to personnel policies and practices more in keeping with modern thought and application. The trite statements that teachers are the main resources of educational systems and that quality education depends on quality teaching are nonetheless true. If this is really believed then the absurdity of some practices becomes apparent and indefensible, for example, the present doubtful pre-service student teaching experience, the haphazard induction period in the first years of teaching and the lack of training for most of the people assuming leadership/administrative positions.
2. It was stated at the beginning that a feature of a comprehensive personnel policy would be the development of a conceptual framework which would include a statement on goals and objectives, a specification of roles and responsibilities, and criteria for evaluation. Such a framework would include plans for research on current needs and appropriate educational activities, and generally would ensure vigour and accountability to the whole program.
   Who would have this overall guiding responsibility? The suggestion is that a broadly representative committee be formed with the emphasis on comprehensive representation but mainly on people with competence and knowhow and not just vested interest.
3. An essential ingredient in a program of personnel development will be the use of a full-time core of qualified staff backed by a number of other staff who will have other duties but will be trained also in the essential competencies of staff development. For the near future full-time staff may be working out of regions and head offices while the back-up group would be such people as curriculum consultants, counsellors, principals and other selected school staff. Most of the skills needed by those charged with leadership responsibilities have been identified, for example:
   - sensitivity to and appreciation of individuals;
   - ability to identify needs in an unobtrusive, supportive way;
   - ability to work with groups;
   - knowledge of how adults learn;
   - leadership strategies; and
   - understanding of the classroom.

What of the Future?

Considerations of resources inevitably arise when developmental proposals are put forward and the present economic situation does not make the prospects rosy. However Ingvarson and Coulter claim that the increase would be relatively small. The main requirement is a redeployment of existing resources so that they are not tied to Commonwealth Government special purposes programs as the bulk of them now are. There is need also for greater continuity and stability rather than the uncertainty imposed by Commonwealth whims.

Assuming that the first step is the development of an overall conceptual policy and framework through extensive consultation and research, the question may then arise as to the priorities which might be adopted in implementing the program of professional development. Are there crucial areas which may provide returns that will be marked and even spectacular? The final decisions will depend on the comprehensive plan. However it is worth considering such a strategy. As examples of possible key areas there is ample evidence of the importance of those set out below.

The induction of newly trained teachers into full time teaching has been established by various studies as crucial to later performance attitudes and self-image. There are still many problems to be examined for teachers in their first few years. Some successes have been reported also. It may well be a priority area.

A different set of questions arises with teachers who have been in service for a period of time and should be mature professionals. Some studies suggest, however, that after about 7-10 years (it varies, naturally with the teacher), some revitalisation may be fruitful, especially for those who wish to remain in the classroom.

It has been well established that those who undertake leadership and administrative roles need training. Yet in Australia it is generally spasmodic or is not made a requirement. Some people move into part-time leadership positions (heads of departments, principals of small schools). Others move into full-time leadership positions (principals, superintendents, consultants). All need training in the new competencies required. Failure to face up to this requirement in the past may have been the biggest weakness in Australian educational systems.

A special example of the requirement that training be given to people for new roles would be the preparation of people who would work in professional development activities to provide the care and back-up groups mentioned above.

In conclusion, it is worth remembering that the comprehensive Commonwealth and State reports on teacher education in recent years have all stressed the importance of professional development inservice. Most of these reports have been ignored despite the strong political pressure which insisted on them being undertaken. In addition to remembering the quote from Reid, 'Let's begin where the teacher is', it might be worth starting from where the politicians and senior administrators are.

References

Campbell, W.J., Beavers, W.S., Carss, B.W., Genn, J.M. and Grassie, McC.C. (1975) *Being a Teacher in Australian State Schools.* AGPS, Canberra.

Commonwealth of Australia (1980) *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education.* AGPS, Canberra.

Docker, J., Fisher, D. and Hughes, P. (1985) *An Evaluation of Professional Development Practices in Tasmania 1983-85.* Education Department of Tasmania, Hobart.

McArthur, J. (1981) *The First Five Years of Teaching.* AGPS, Canberra.

National Education Association (1975) *Rethinking Inservice Education.* NEA, Washington DC.

Neal, W.D. (1954) 'The Training of Teachers in Service, *The Educand,* (1), 55-60. University of Western Australia, Perth.

Reid, C. (1946) 'Let's Begin Where the Teacher Is', *Canadian Education,* May, Toronto.

Report of the Committee to Advise on Teacher Education in Queensland (1978) *1978 Review: Teacher Education in Queensland.* Board of Advanced Education, Brisbane.

Report of the Committee to Examine Teacher Education in New South Wales (1980) *Teachers for Tomorrow: Continuity, Challenge and Change in Teacher Education in New South Wales.* Government Printer, Sydney.

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS PUBLICATION

Donald S. Anderson. Professorial Fellow, Research School of Social Sciences, Australian National University, Canberra.

Geoffrey W. Beeson. Head, Burwood Campus, Victoria College, Victoria.

George F. Berkeley. Director-General of Education, Queensland Department of Education (at the time of writing).

Judith M. Chapman. Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Education, Monash University, Victoria.

Frank Coulter. Head, School of Education, Canberra College of Advanced Education.

Christine E. Deer. Associate Professor, School of Education, Macquarie University, New South Wales. Dr Deer was Coordinator for Theme 2 of this Professional Development Project, sponsored by The Australian College of Education.

John Docker. Principal, Prospect High School, Launceston, Tasmania.

Michael J. Dunkin. Director, Centre for Teaching and Learning, University of Sydney.

Ken J. Eltis. Director of Studies, New South Wales Department of Education. At the time of preparing his chapters he was Director of the Teacher Education Program, Macquarie University, New South Wales.

Margaret Guild-Wilson. Senior Research Officer, New South Wales Department of Education.

Marelle Harisun. at the time of writing, was School Development Program Adviser, Commonwealth Schools Commission Professional Development Program, South Australia. She is now with the South Australian Education Department.

Phillip W. Hughes. Professor of Education and Head, Department of Teacher Education, University of Tasmania. Professor Hughes was Project Director of this Professional Development Project which was sponsored by the Research Committee of The Australian College of Education.

Lawrence Ingvarson. Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Education, Monash University, Victoria.

Colin J. Marsh. Associate Professor, School of Education, Murdoch University, Western Australia.

William Mulford. Dean of Education, Tasmanian State Institute of Technology, Launceston.

Walter D. Neal, AO. now retired, was formerly Chairman, Western Australian Post-Secondary Education Commission. Dr. Neal was Coordinator of Theme 3 of this Professional Development Project of the Research Committee of The Australian College of Education.

David Pettit. currently acting as Policy Director, Ministry of Education, Victoria.

Ralph W. Rawlinson. Chairman, Education Commission of New South Wales.

Neil A. Russell. Head, Department of Adult Learning and Teaching, School of Education, Canberra College of Advanced Education.

Edward Scott. Professor of Education, James Cook University of North Queensland, Townsville, Queensland.

Dawn M. Thew. Director, St. George Institute of Education, Sydney College of Advanced Education, New South Wales.

Richard P. Tisher. Professor of Education, Monash University, Victoria.

David H. Tripp. Senior Lecturer, School of Education, Murdoch University, Western Australia.

William G. Walker, A.M., Chief Executive and Principal, Australian Administrative Staff College, Mt. Eliza, Victoria.

Yve Willich. Professional Development Officer, Hawthorn Professional Development Centre, Ministry of Education, Victoria.